

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Results

This chapter describes the results of citation style that Indonesian writers and international writers used in research article introductions in TEFLIN and Asian EFL journal. The research had been done on April 8 until 18 Mei 2014 by using checklist and documentation technique.

4.1.1.1 The Citation Types in Indonesian and International Research Article Introductions

This part describes the results of citation types that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in the research article introductions. The researcher counted the data by using a checklist and a percentage formula to find out similarities of citation types that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in research article introduction.

Table 1. Citations Types Frequency in Research Article Introduction Used by Indonesian and International Writers

No	Types of Citation	Indonesian Writers in TEFLIN		International Writers in Asian EFL	
		F	%	F	%
1	Quotation	28	15.05%	26	41.94%
2	Paraphrase	136	73.12%	31	50%
3	Summary	22	1.83%	5	8.06%
Total		186	100%	62	100%

The table above shows that there are 186 citations in 10 research article introductions that Indonesian writers used, 28 or (15.05%) of quotation, 136 or (73.12%) of paraphrase, and 22 or (11.83%) of summary. On the other hand, the table above shows 62 citation in 10 research article introductions that international writers used. There are 26 or (41.94%) for direct quotation, 31 or (50%) for paraphrase, and five or (8.06%) for summary. From the total score of frequency in types of citation, most Indonesian and international writers dominantly used paraphrase. These are the examples of paraphrase that Indonesian and international writers used in research article introductions:

1. The main difference, according to Adnan (2009) is on the occurrence of Move 1 (establishing a territory) in which the majority of Indonesian RA writers address the importance of their research topic by referring to practical problems experienced by common people or the government rather than by specific relevant discourse community. In addition, none of the Indonesian RA authors, as Adnan claims further, justifies their research projects reported in the RAs by pointing at the gap or ‘niche’ in the results or findings of previous relevant studies as in Swales’ model of Move 2 (establishing a niche). Adnan proposes a modified model of ideal problem solution (IPS) to capture important discourse style of the Indonesian RA introduction sections especially in the discipline of education. (TEFLIN 7)
2. Because of its traditional English-teaching style being grammar-oriented from as early as the introduction of the first version of TOEFL PBT for students applying to schools in North America several decades ago, Taiwanese students have long been used to learning English passively as well as monotonously (Kung, 2012). (Asian EFL 1)

The examples above show that there are Indonesian and international writers that used their own words to cite information from the source.

4.1.2 Tenses of Citation in Indonesian and International Research Article Introductions

This part describes about the types of tenses in citation that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in research article introduction. The researcher used checklist

and percentages formula to find out the types of tenses in citation that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in research article introduction.

There are some tenses that Indonesian and international writers used in citation in research article introductions. The researcher has counted the data of tenses type of in citation that Indonesian and international used in research article introductions. It is showed in the following table:

Table 2. The Tenses of Citation in Research Article Introduction by Indonesian and International Writers.

No	Types of Citation	Indonesian Writers in TEFLIN		International Writers in Asian EFL	
		F	%	F	%
1	Simple Past Tense	50	26.89%	11	17.74%
2	Simple Present Tense	125	67.20%	43	69.36%
3	Present Perfect Tense	11	5.91%	8	12.9%
Total		186	100%	62	100%

Table above shows that there are 186 citation that Indonesian used, 50 or (26.89%) of simple past tense, 125 or (67.20%) of simple present tense, and 11 or (5.91%) of present perfect tense. On the other hand, the table 2 shows that there are 62 tenses in 62 citations in the research article introductions. There are 11 or (17.74%) of simple past tense, 43 or (69.36%) of simple present tense, and 8 or (12.9%) of present perfect tense. From the tenses of citation in research article introduction, Indonesian and international writers dominantly

used simple present tense. These are the examples of paraphrase that Indonesian and international writers used in research article introductions:

3. Literature in cognitive psychology shows that paraphrasing is cognitively demanding. As the material to be paraphrased becomes more complex, students tend to employ simpler processing, causing the writing to look like a patchwork (Marsh, Landau, & Hick in Walker, 2008). (TEFLIN 10)
4. Globalization **is also** a complex phenomenon with positive and negative social impacts including economics, culture, identity, politics, and technology (Block & Cameron, 2002). (Asian EFL 1)

The examples above show that there are Indonesian and international writers that used “is” or verb 1 as verb that notabene characteristic of simple present tense.

4.1.3 Types of Prominent Citation in Indonesian and International Research Article Introductions.

This part describes about the prominent citation types that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in an introduction of a research article introductions. The researcher counted the data by using checklist and percentages formula to find out the types of prominent citation that were used by Indonesian writers and International writers in research article introduction. It is showed in the following table:

Table 3. Types of Prominent Citation in Research Article Introduction Used by Indonesian Writers

No	Types of Citation	Indonesian Writers in TEFLIN		International Writers in Asian EFL	
		F	%	F	%
1	Integral Citation	105	56.45%	23	37.1%

2	Non-integral citation	81	43.55%	39	62.9%
Total		186	100%	62	100%

The table above shows, 105 or (56.45%) of integral citations and 81 or (43.55%) used by Indonesian writers. Dominantly, Indonesian writers used integral citation in research article introductions. Here, an example of integral citation:

- 5 The necessity of seeing the learner autonomy from the psychological perspective is, as Long (1998) asserted, due to the argument that the psychological account of learner autonomy was important and adequate to be used as the basis to explain selfdirected learning which is now more frequently referred to as autonomous learning or independent learning. (TEFLIN 3)

The example above shows that normal integral citation begin with the author and years at beginning sentence of citation to appreciate the author of sources.

In contrast, non-integral citations dominantly used by international writers in research article introductions. The table above shows, 23 or (37.1%) of integral citation and 39 or (62.9%) of non-integral citation. Here is an example of non-integral citation:

- 6 Because of its traditional English-teaching style being grammar-oriented from as early as the introduction of the first version of TOEFL PBT for students applying to schools in North America several decades ago, Taiwanese students have long been used to learning English passively as well as monotonously (Kung, 2012). (Asian EFL 1)

The examples above show that in non-integral citation, writers put the author and date from the sources tha are used at the end of citation.

4.2 Discussion

This research has three results. The first, the similarities of citation style between Indonesian and international writers. The result of the research, paraphrase is dominant citation style that Indonesian and international writers used in research article introduction. Maori (2011) says that the greatest amount of quotation acceptable in TKAM (Te Kawa A Maui) is lower than paraphrase in the research article introductions.

Second, the similarities tenses in citation that Indonesian and international writers used in research article introductions. As the result, Indonesian and international writers dominantly used simple present tense as tenses of citation in research article introductions. Swales and Feak (2009) say, simple present tense is used when the writers cite the sources, simple past tense is used when the writers present of the previous research, and present perfect is used when the writers show the conclusion of some sources that has similar topic.

Third, majority Indonesian writers use integral citation as prominent citation while international writers dominantly use non-integral citation as prominent citation in research article introductions. The differences of style prominent citation may be influenced by culture between Indonesian and international writers. Rubin and Menzer (2010), say that western cultures are described as those for their members value assertiveness, expresiveness, and competitiveness. It is different from eastern and southern country that described as those for their members value group harmony and cooperation.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

It can be concluded that:

1. The most dominant citation style used by Indonesian and international writers in research article introductions is paraphrase.
2. The most dominant tense used in citation by Indonesian and international writers in research article introduction is simple present tense.
3. The difference between the citation style used by Indonesian and international writers in research article introductions is that Indonesian writers dominantly use integral type of citation while international writers dominantly use non-integral type of citation

5.2 Suggestion

As the result of this research, the researcher suggests that:

1. For all lecturers of English study programs, it is suggested that they could teach more about a good citation and about using tenses in writing citation that appropriate with characteristic good scientific writing.
2. For all of students of English study programs, they should ask for the lecturers how to use citation and tenses in citation. So, the students understand about the best citation and tenses that appropriate with situation and characteristics of the best academic writing.
3. For the next researcher, citation is a important aspect in scientific writing especially research article. In this case, the next researcher could also investigate the other citation

aspects not only in research article introduction or literature reviews but also in a research article or thesis.

APPENDICES

Checklist For Indonesian Writers Journal in English

No	Tittle of Journal that is written by Indonesian writers in English	Types of Citation			Note
		Quotation	Summary	Pharaprased	
1	TEFLIN 1	2	5	21	28
2	TEFLIN 2	1	1	8	10
3	TEFLIN 3	8	5	36	49
4	TEFLIN 4	7	-	17	24
5	TEFLIN 5	2	1	8	11
6	TEFLIN 6	1	-	4	5
7	TEFLIN 7	5	2	17	24
8	TEFLIN 8	1	2	13	16
9	TEFLIN 9	1	5	6	12
10	TEFLIN 10	-	1	6	7
Total		28 (15,05%)	262(11,83%)	136(73, 12%)	186 (100%)

Checklist For International Writers Journal

No	Tittle of Journal that is written by International writers	Types of Citation			Note
		Quotation	Summary	Pharaprased	
1	Asian EFL 1	-	-	2	2
2	Asian EFL 2	3	1	11	15
3	Asian EFL 3	2	-	3	5
4	Asian EFL 4	3	-	2	5
5	Asian EFL 5	13	-	7	20
6	Asian EFL 6	1	1	2	4
7	Asian EFL 7	4	2	3	9
8	Asian EFL 8	-	-	-	-
9	Asian EFL 9	-	1	-	1
10	Asian EFL 10	-	-	1	1
Total		26 (41,94%)	5 (8,06%)	31 (50%)	62 (100%)

Checklist Tenses for Indonesian Writers in English

No	Tittle of Journal that is written by Indonesian writers in English	Tenses			Note
		Past tense	Present Perfect	Present tense	
1	TEFLIN 1	5	1	22	27
2	TEFLIN 2	5	-	5	10
3	TEFLIN 3	21	2	26	49
4	TEFLIN 4	2	-	22	24
5	TEFLIN 5	1	1	10	11
6	TEFLIN 6	1	-	4	5
7	TEFLIN 7	8	2	14	24
8	TEFLIN 8	5	2	9	16
9	TEFLIN 9	1	1	10	12
10	TEFLIN 10	1	3	3	7
	Jumlah	50 (26,89%)	11 (5,91%)	125 (67,20%)	186 (100)

Checklist Tenses for International Writers

No	Tittle of Journal that is written by International	Tenses			Note
		Past tense	Present Perfect	Present tense	
1	Asian EFL 1	-	-	2	2
2	Asian EFL 2	3	2	10	15
3	Asian EFL 3	3	-	2	5
4	Asian EFL 4	2	-	3	5
5	Asian EFL 5	2	1	17	20
6	Asian EFL 6	1	2	1	4
7	Asian EFL 7	-	2	7	9
8	Asian EFL 8	-	-	-	-
9	Asian EFL 9	-	-	1	1
10	Asian EFL 10	-	1	-	1
	Jumlah	11	8	43	62

		(17,74%)	(12,9%)	(69,36)	(100)
--	--	----------	---------	---------	-------

Checklist Integral and Non-Integral for Indonesian Writers in English

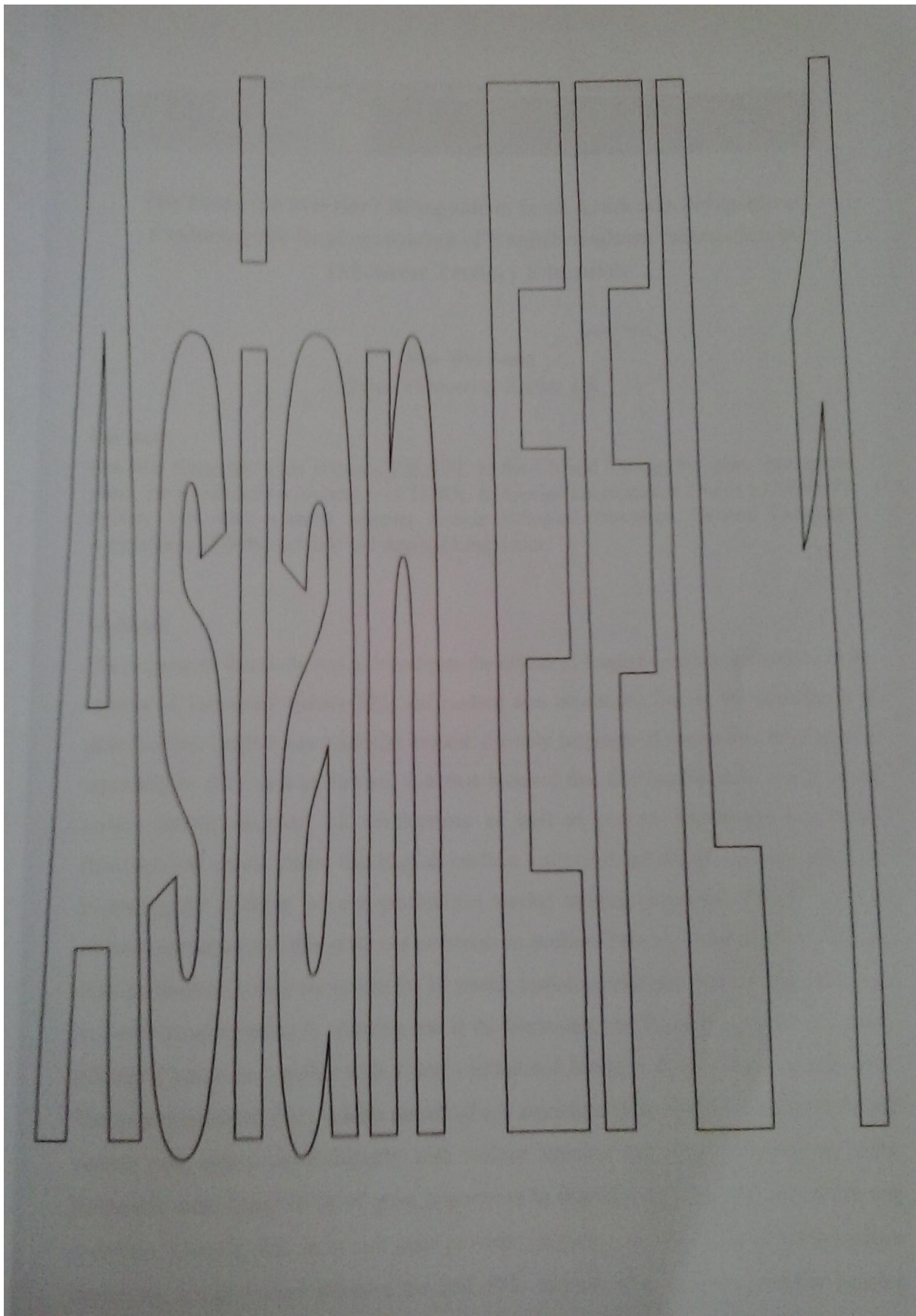
No	Title of Journal that is written by Indonesian writers in English	Integral	Non-Integral	Note
1	TEFLIN 1	10	18	28
2	TEFLIN 2	8	2	10
3	TEFLIN 3	29	20	49
4	TEFLIN 4	16	8	24
5	TEFLIN 5	8	3	11
6	TEFLIN 6	3	2	5
7	TEFLIN 7	13	11	24
8	TEFLIN 8	13	3	16
9	TEFLIN 9	-	12	12
10	TEFLIN 10	5	2	7

	Jumlah	105 (56,45%)	81 (43,55%)	186 (100%)
--	--------	--------------	-------------	------------

Checklist Integral and Non-Integral for International Writers

No	Title of Journal that is written by Indonesian writers in English	Integral	Non-Integral	Note
1	Asian EFL 1	-	2	2
2	Asian EFL 2	2	13	15
3	Asian EFL 3	4	1	5
4	Asian EFL 4	3	2	5
5	Asian EFL 5	7	13	20
6	Asian EFL 6	1	3	4
7	Asian EFL 7	5	4	9
8	Asian EFL 8	-	-	-

9	Asian EFL 9	-	1	1
10	Asian EFL 10	1	-	1
	Jumlah	23 (37,1%)	39 (62,9%)	62 (100%)



The More the Merrier? Bilingualism in an Academic Perspective: Exploring the Implementation of English-medium Instruction in Taiwanese Tertiary Education

Fan-Wei Kung

Queen's University Belfast, UK

Bio Data

Fan-Wei Kung has been teaching ESL/EFL in the US and Taiwan for more than seven years. He is currently a researcher of TESOL & Applied Linguistics at Queen's University Belfast, UK. His research interests include Bilingual Education, Second Language Acquisition, TESOL methods and Applied Linguistics.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of English-medium instruction in the context of Taiwanese tertiary EFL and content area education. Due to the prevalence of globalization, English has gradually become the only language of instruction in academia, especially in Asia such as Taiwan. It is thus believed that this English only policy would greatly benefit students' L2 development as well as content knowledge acquisition. However, this article claims that English-medium instruction could be ineffective and even frustrating for students without professional teacher training programs. There were 104 students participated in this study at a university in northern Taiwan. The data were collected from participants taking the course for 18 weeks, including students' Pre-questionnaires and an institutional listening & speaking test at the beginning, and Post-questionnaires, a semi-structured interview together with a final institutional listening & speaking test at the end. The results indicated that students perceived and experienced the English-medium EFL and content area instruction differently with various learning outcomes and attitudes. Also, instructors were found to be of great importance to students' learning results without any exception. Overall, this study not only provides empirical evidence that English-medium instruction is not always effective for ESL/EFL students without proper teacher training programs, but also sheds light on what policy makers and language teachers need to consider for creating a more effective and student-friendly English learning environment.

Key words: bilingual education, English-medium instruction, tertiary education, L2 proficiency, teacher training program

Introduction

Globalization in the context of Taiwanese EFL education

As the world becomes smaller while the technology advances, being able to speak English fluently has become a prerequisite to a successful employment opportunity, especially in Asia where various commercial activities with North America have not been more frequent in the past decades. Globalization has given us more access to diverse resources not only financially, but also linguistically as well as educationally.

Globalization is also a complex phenomenon with positive and negative social impacts including economics, culture, identity, politics, and technology (Block & Cameron, 2002).

Paraphrase
Present to
Her - history

Therefore, the emergence of a world language is a necessary phenomenon for global citizens to communicate with each other with more convenience. It is the same in Taiwan where the global acceptance of the English language has gotten its place from as early as three-year-olds in kindergartens to public servants working for the government who are assessed regularly for their English proficiency by taking several standardized tests. It thus shows the importance of English learning in Taiwan, and also how it is taught in the context of EFL learning on the island. Seeing the trends, Taiwan's government also started promoting English learning by introducing a local English language standardized test (General English Proficiency Test, commonly known as GEPT in Taiwan with elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels) for the general public almost a decade ago, and incorporating English listening comprehension into the College Entrance Exam in 2011 aimed at improving high school students' listening and possibly speaking skills. Similar phenomenon can also be found in Taiwan's tertiary education where many universities hope or require instructors to teach content areas in English for better international image and ranking in the world. It is indeed very difficult for the general public to get by without knowing English these days.

The more the merrier?

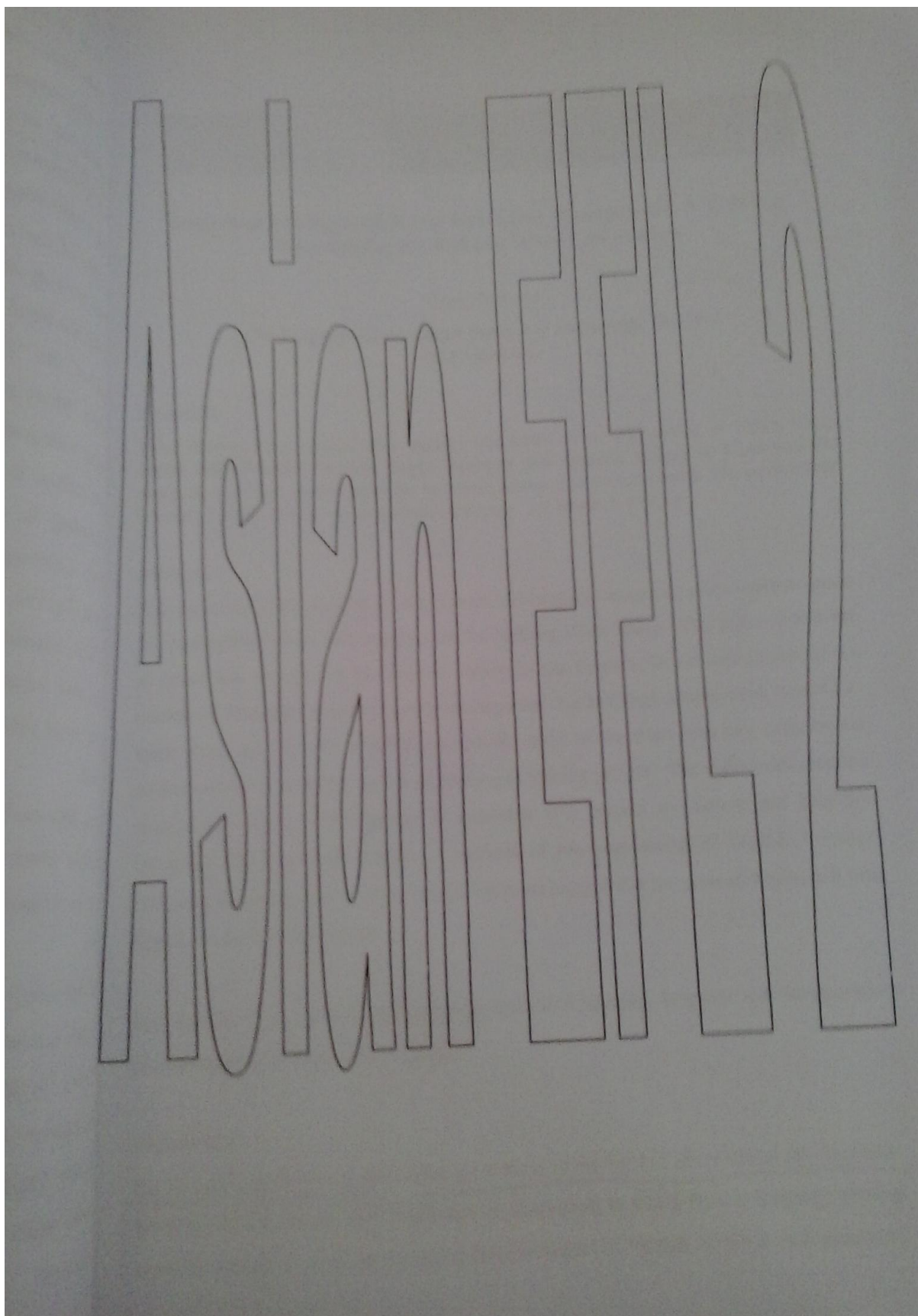
Paraphrase
Present tense
non-integral

Because of its traditional English-teaching style being grammar-oriented from as early as the introduction of the first version of TOEFL PBT for students applying to schools in North America several decades ago, Taiwanese students have long been used to learning English passively as well as monotonously (Kung, 2012). Therefore, it seems logical for Taiwan's government to reverse its learning environment by having more resources including lengthening the mandatory EFL education from elementary school, making English one of the official subjects for national exams, and increasing the scholarship candidates to study abroad to cultivate more citizens with broader worldview in the future. Apparently, the trend of English learning has not been stronger in Taiwan.

However, the "pro-English phenomenon" in Taiwan does not come without any controversy. Many parents and teachers have found that sending children to an English-medium or bilingual school does not necessary reflect their higher English proficiency levels. In reality, it even becomes a dilemma for parents with young children thinking about enrolling in an English-medium school before their Chinese language has fully developed. Learning in an English-medium context seems like a plus for many EFL learners in Taiwan, but uncertainty still remains as to when and where this should take place. Also, current research regarding Taiwanese EFL students' learning experiences, attitudes, and improvements in the context of an English-medium instruction has been relatively scant partly because English is only taught as a foreign not a second language on the island.

Thus, this study aims to investigate Taiwanese EFL college students' attitudes and perceptions toward the English-medium instruction teaching content areas and EFL learning in schools. With that said, the present study has several research questions as follows:

1. Whether English-medium instruction can be used to boost Taiwanese EFL students' learning motivation?
2. Whether English-medium instruction can be used to successfully improve Taiwanese EFL learners' English listening and speaking skills?
3. Whether English-medium instruction can be used as an effective tool for teaching content areas in the context of Taiwanese EFL education as far as students are concerned?



English and Integrated Water Resources Management: A Training Program for the Mekong River Commission

Tylor Burrows

The Language Center, Asian Institute of Technology, Thailand
tylorb@aait.ac.th

Bioprofile

Tylor Burrows has worked as a lecturer and instructor at universities in China, Saudi Arabia and Thailand. He has taught academic and research writing in a pre-bachelor preparation setting, as well as at the bachelor, master, and doctoral levels. His professional interests include teacher development, e-learning, and research writing.

Abstract

This paper outlines a case study of a content-and-language integrated preparatory program for professionals from five countries in the Mekong River Basin. The broad aim of the program was to improve participants' ability to use English for communication in the context of integrated water resources management. Further, participants were required to learn about and be able to fulfill the specific tasks of the trans-boundary organization which would be their host during an on-the-job training project. The eight-week program integrating content and language is presented with respect to content and language integrated learning good practice. Analysis of pre-/post-testing of English language competencies and a survey of participant opinions suggest that the presented approach was beneficial for the participants.

Key words: CLIL, content and language integrated learning, language and development programs, language curriculum design

Introduction

The use of English as a global language extends to the field of international development. Activities which directly focus on language instruction, or which include language training to enable people to work on a project, have been part of foreign aid since such assistance

Paraphrase / Present perfect / Non-Integrat

Paraphrase / present tense / Integrat

begin in the 1940s (Kenny & Savage, 1997). Cumming and Storer (1992) describe an example of such training in which the Swedish International Development Agency invites language training specialists from the Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) to assess the language training attached to infrastructure and resources projects in Laos PDR. Since its 1959 inception as the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization Graduate School of Engineering, AIT has been an international institute using English as the language of instruction for alumni from over 85 countries (AIT, 2008a). Today, AIT boasts 32 fields of study including Gender and Development, Nanotechnology, and Business Administration. Although language instruction is not considered one of its core activities, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is implicitly part of the institute's *modus operandi*. Based in Thailand, AIT is a regional hub for development projects with a long and prestigious list of international partners and local centers, and a mission "to develop highly qualified and committed professionals who will play a leading role in the sustainable development of the [Asia-Pacific] region and its integration into the global economy" (AIT, 2008b).

Paraphrase
Present perfect
Non-Integrat

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-Integrat

In order to enhance communication and academic skills, both for AIT students and external partners, the AIT English Language Center initiated the TalkBase program in 1985 (see Kenny, 1993; Kenny & Laszewski, 1997) which followed an experiential learning (see Miettinen, 2000) approach to language education through autonomous and task-based exploration of content. Briefly, TalkBase encouraged motivated and autonomous learning by requiring participants to choose their own areas of scientific inquiry, identifying issues or gaps on which to focus, and working towards a solution to that problem (Clayton & Shaw, 1997). Today, the AIT Language Center conducts a Bridging Program to prepare masters and doctoral candidates for advanced study, with the same basic principles as TalkBase. When approached by the Mekong River Commission (MRC) to provide the preliminary language training for their Junior Riparian Professional (JRP) project, it provided an opportunity to assist a regional partner while supporting the mission of the institute.

Summary
Present tense
Non-Integrat

Paraphrase
Present tense
Integrat

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-Integrat

The MRC was "founded in 1995 to coordinate water resources planning and development across Southeast Asia's Mekong River basin" with Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, and Vietnam as member states (Jacobs, 2002, p. 354) and China and Myanmar as dialogue partners. They use the paradigm of integrated water resources management (IWRM), "a process which promotes the co-ordinated development and management of water, land and related resources, in order to maximize the resultant economic and social

Quotations
Simple past
Non-Integrat

Quotation / ~~simple~~ present tense / Non-Integral

welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems" (GWP, 2000, p.22). The core work of the MRC is divided into the following programs:

- Agriculture and Irrigation Programme,
- Basin Development Plan Programme,
- Environment Programme,
- Fisheries Programme,
- Flood Management and Mitigation Programme,
- Information and Knowledge Management Programme,
- Integrated Capacity Building Programme,
- Navigation Programme,
- Climate Change Adaptation Initiative,
- Initiative on Sustainable Hydropower,
- Drought Management Project,
- Mekong Integrated Water Resources Management Project, and
- Watershed Management Project (MRC, 2011a).

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-Integral

As part of their capacity building strategy, the MRC aims to enable national organizations and citizens of the basin to work on sustainable development in the context of IWRM. To this end, the JRP project recruits "selected young professionals from the

Mekong Regions, believing that this is a part of a long-term process to generate well-trained and skilled riparian professionals on different IWRM related disciplines such as IWRM principles, stakeholder engagement, basin development planning, strategic planning, project cycle management, gender equality, communication, monitoring and evaluation, climate change adaptation, etc." (MRC, n.d.a)

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integral

Phase I of the project was completed in 2006 (MRC, 2006) while Phase II will involve ten successive groups, known as batches, from 2008 to 2014 (MRC, n.d.b) by 2012 over 40 participants had completed the program (UNESCAP, 2012).

PP / SP / N-I
PP / P / N-I
PP / SP / N-I

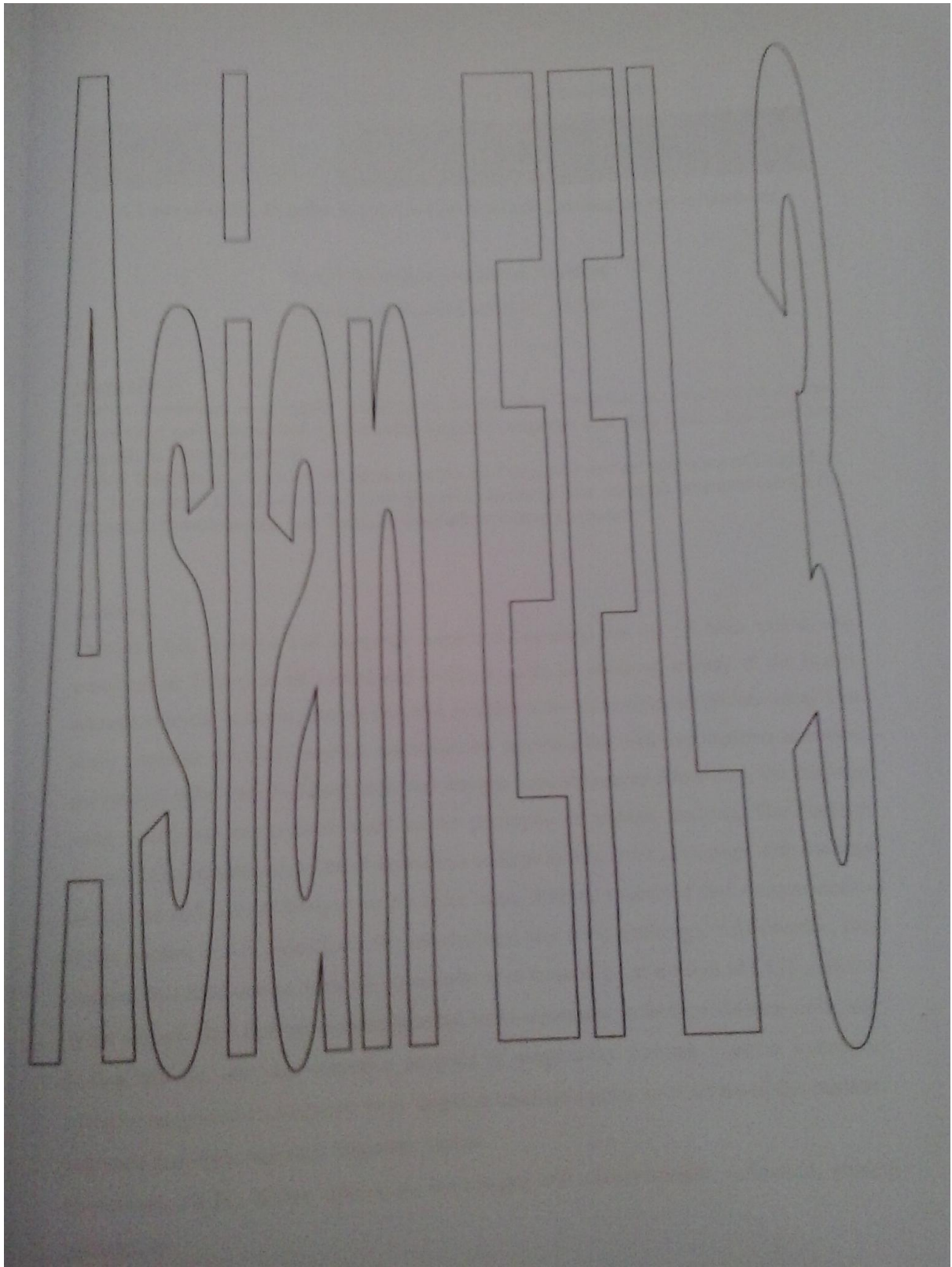
Since the MRC is a trans-boundary organization with both regional and global stakeholders, English is used as the working language (Backer, 2006); after the second batch of JRP Project Phase II it was decided that preliminary English language training would be beneficial for future participants. AIT, as a hub for development and higher education and with an existing preparatory program for English language training, was a sensible option for such training. The third, fourth, and fifth batches of JRP Project Phase II participated in a modified version of an existing program for post-graduate students.

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-Integral

A mid-term review of the entire JRP Project Phase II found that the approach was too academic and could be adapted to better suit the perceived needs of the MRC. For example, useful tasks for graduate students such as literature reviews, proposal writing for thesis research, statistical analysis using SPSS, and qualitative research design could be replaced by professional communication tasks such as memo, email, and report writing. The MRC also requested stronger emphasis on explicit language education in a classroom setting, such as speaking and vocabulary lessons, complemented by pre-/post-testing of language competencies within MRC and IWRM contexts. The challenge for the training designers thus became to integrate foreign language and communication skills, together with specialized content knowledge, and facilitate student ability to independently complete professional tasks using this new understanding of both English and IWRM. This strongly tailored professional program required special attention paid to the technical terms and jargon of the development sector, IWRM, and the MRC. The AIT Bridging Program was revised to incorporate these requests, but the Batch 6 implementation was interrupted by widespread flooding in Thailand which led to the evacuation of the AIT mother campus (see TSF, 2011).

The eight JRPs who participated in the training described in this paper were the seventh batch of Phase II of the project. They consisted of two Cambodians, two Laotians, two Thais, one Vietnamese, and one participant from Myanmar. They were aged between 24 and 35, and their educational background included degrees in civil engineering, irrigation engineering, environmental science, public policy, tourism, and geography. Five were male, and three were female. Their home organizations included the Cambodian Ministry Of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries; the Laos PDR Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment; the Myanmar Directorate of Water Resources and Improvement of River Systems, the Thai Department of Water Resources; and the Vietnam Institute of Meteorology, Hydrology and Environment. The majority of their previous educational and professional experience was in their respective native languages. With the exception of the Laotians, whose language is similar to Thai, the only common language for the participants was English. Participants in the JRP project have varying levels of English language fluency, with some having completed advanced degrees in an English language medium and therefore able to write and converse easily, but others having little practical experience with the language and thus struggling at the vocabulary and sentence level.

This paper will present a case study of an eight-week JRP training on English language in the context of IWRM for work with the MRC, based on an *ex post facto* review of



A Case of CLIL Practice in the Turkish Context: Lending an ear to Students

Derya Bozdoğan and Buket Karhdağ

Abant İzzet Baysal University, Turkey

Bioprofiles:

Derya Bozdoğan is currently working as an Assistant Professor at Abant İzzet Baysal University and is interested in Computer Assisted Language Learning, CLIL, and Teaching English to Young Learners.

Buket Karhdağ, is both an MA student at the ELT program and an instructor of English at the preparatory school at Abant İzzet Baysal University. Her research interests are CLIL, Materials Development, and Teaching English to Young Learners.

Abstract

Though CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) has not yet been extensively practiced in Turkey at all educational levels, it could be observed mainly at the higher education levels at some selected faculties of either state universities or private ones. This study explores the CLIL practice reflections by reporting the views of students at a state university. After data had been collected through semi-structured interviews, the findings were coded and categorized based on the principles of content analysis. The findings revealed that students considered instruction in English as a great advantage with feelings of success and self-confidence; on the other hand, students expressed that comprehension of the content in L2, specifically the terminology, was a big challenge. Additionally, they claimed that their course curricula are simpler than those in L1 as a result of CLIL practice. What's more, they feel no improvement but some regression in their productive skills after having had the one-year intensive program of preparatory courses. Content instructors could be suggested to cooperate with language teachers and be more aware of the students' language problems and seek linguistic advice.

Keywords: CLIL, higher education, advantages and disadvantages, reflection, student perspective

1. Introduction

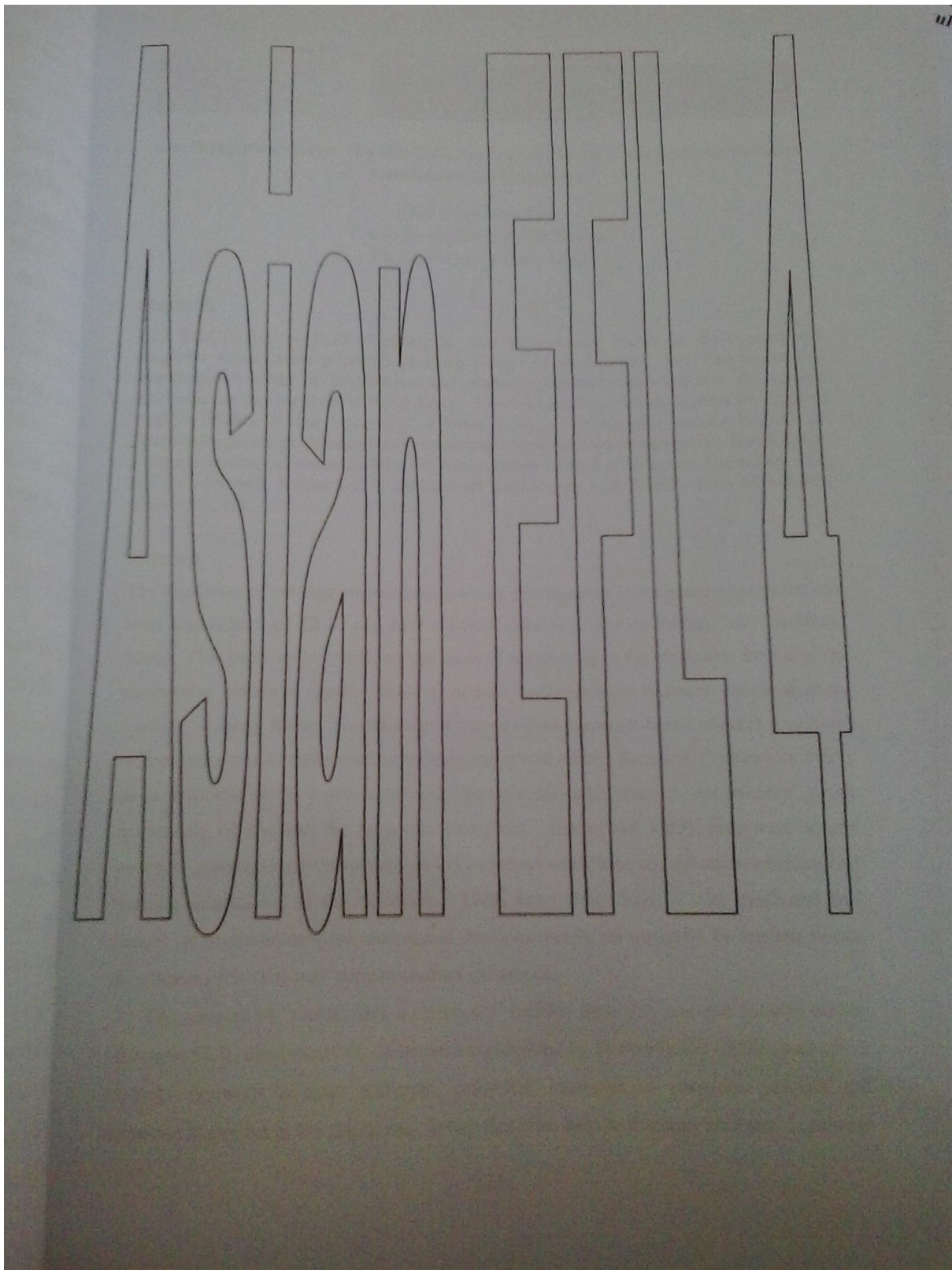
A wide range of approaches and models has been tried out with the ultimate aim of increasing the effectiveness of language teaching. Among these, content-based instruction (CBI) is an approach integrating language and content instruction (Brinton & Wesche, 2003) that is grounded in sound theoretical approaches. The two dimensions of the approach—language and content—melt in the same pot with different proportions from different perspectives. Although what is expected as to language teaching is considerably long-established, the reference for *content* has been subject to change in the course of time. In that sense, Crandall and Tucker (1990, p.187) restricted the scope to “academic subject matter” whilst Curtin and Pesola (1994, p.35) covered level appropriateness as seen in “...curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language ... appropriate to the grade level of the students...” More recently Marsh (2000), who has coined the term CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in 1994, broadened its scope by adding the cultural dimension. Content-based instruction can be categorized according to the weight given to content and language teaching. The proportion and degree of language and content teaching are given particular importance during curriculum preparation. To illustrate, the most eminent continuum model outlined by Stoller (2004) shows from the most content-oriented to the least content oriented, namely from the sheltered content instruction to the theme-based language instruction.

Handwritten notes:
Para 1: Sheltered Content Instruction
Para 2: Simple English
Para 3: Simple English
Para 4: Simple English
Para 5: Simple English
Para 6: Simple English
Para 7: Simple English
Para 8: Simple English
Para 9: Simple English
Para 10: Simple English
Para 11: Simple English
Para 12: Simple English
Para 13: Simple English
Para 14: Simple English
Para 15: Simple English
Para 16: Simple English
Para 17: Simple English
Para 18: Simple English
Para 19: Simple English
Para 20: Simple English
Para 21: Simple English
Para 22: Simple English
Para 23: Simple English
Para 24: Simple English
Para 25: Simple English
Para 26: Simple English
Para 27: Simple English
Para 28: Simple English
Para 29: Simple English
Para 30: Simple English
Para 31: Simple English
Para 32: Simple English
Para 33: Simple English
Para 34: Simple English
Para 35: Simple English
Para 36: Simple English
Para 37: Simple English
Para 38: Simple English
Para 39: Simple English
Para 40: Simple English
Para 41: Simple English
Para 42: Simple English
Para 43: Simple English
Para 44: Simple English
Para 45: Simple English
Para 46: Simple English
Para 47: Simple English
Para 48: Simple English
Para 49: Simple English
Para 50: Simple English
Para 51: Simple English
Para 52: Simple English
Para 53: Simple English
Para 54: Simple English
Para 55: Simple English
Para 56: Simple English
Para 57: Simple English
Para 58: Simple English
Para 59: Simple English
Para 60: Simple English
Para 61: Simple English
Para 62: Simple English
Para 63: Simple English
Para 64: Simple English
Para 65: Simple English
Para 66: Simple English
Para 67: Simple English
Para 68: Simple English
Para 69: Simple English
Para 70: Simple English
Para 71: Simple English
Para 72: Simple English
Para 73: Simple English
Para 74: Simple English
Para 75: Simple English
Para 76: Simple English
Para 77: Simple English
Para 78: Simple English
Para 79: Simple English
Para 80: Simple English
Para 81: Simple English
Para 82: Simple English
Para 83: Simple English
Para 84: Simple English
Para 85: Simple English
Para 86: Simple English
Para 87: Simple English
Para 88: Simple English
Para 89: Simple English
Para 90: Simple English
Para 91: Simple English
Para 92: Simple English
Para 93: Simple English
Para 94: Simple English
Para 95: Simple English
Para 96: Simple English
Para 97: Simple English
Para 98: Simple English
Para 99: Simple English
Para 100: Simple English

Handwritten note:
from phase / Present tense / [Interpreting]

2. Theoretical background

The need to make a distinction between what CBI and CLIL refer to should be met and where this paper is positioned along with this continuum should be determined. The plethora of definitions about teaching content in another language rather than in the mother tongue of learners has led to the clarification of focus. Long before CLIL emerged, CBI had been considered as “a continuum of language-content integration” (Met, 1999, p.4) with content-driven focus at one end and language-driven at the other. To link this continuum to this paper, the research focus here is the content-driven one and specifically sheltered-content instruction (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2003, pp. 15-22) in which content is taught to non-native speakers by a subject specialist with an indirect attention to the language-teaching dimension. Moreover, this instruction coincides with the CLIL perspective set as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language.” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p.1). As an additional note, CLIL makes use of a foreign language, not a second



Bestriding Boundaries: Towards Talk Authenticity in the Undergraduate Business Communication Classroom

Jane Chee Ling Tsoi

*Centre for Applied English Studies
The University of Hong Kong*

Bioprofile

Jane Tsoi joined the field of education after an extensive career in the international corporate sector based primarily in Hong Kong. As an educator, Jane has taught and coordinated a range of professional and academic communication courses for various disciplines at tertiary level in Hong Kong. She now teaches with the Centre for Applied English Studies at The University of Hong Kong. Her interests include English for Specific Purposes, professional communication and technology in education. She holds an MSc in Operational Research from the Management School at Lancaster University, UK, and an MA with Distinction in Educational Technology and TESOL from Manchester University, UK.

Abstract

The challenge of creating an authentic learning environment in language classrooms has been highlighted by CLIL and ESP scholars alike (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Belcher, 2006). This paper seeks to address this issue of authenticity in the classroom from a novel perspective within a specific context, namely undergraduate business communication teaching in Hong Kong. The ultimate objective of the literature-based research described in this paper was to make classroom interactions and related discourse ("classroom talk") more authentic to the interactions and discourse that take place in the learners' target community of practice, the corporate workplace. Conceptual similarities were sought between organizational interactions in the corporate workplace and effective teaching and learning interactions in the classroom. From these similarities, it was concluded that aspects of organizational interaction and discourse could authentically be applied within the context of the business communication classroom.

The concept of "transferable authenticity" derived from this research simultaneously addresses CLIL classroom talk constraints highlighted by Dalton-Puffer (2007), and offers students exposure to more authentic, integrated examples of corporate practice and corporate discourse in the classroom. It can therefore help to facilitate students' legitimate

peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in their target community of practice, the corporate workplace.

Keywords: transferable authenticity, authenticity transfer, business communication, university teaching, educational practice, interdisciplinarity, boundary work, communities of practice, legitimate peripheral participation, corporate leadership, management practice, organizational management theory, CLIL, classroom talk, classroom discourse

1. Why Authenticity of CLIL Classroom Talk Is Important

A core tenet of the CLIL methodology is authenticity of communication that takes place within the CLIL classroom environment, enabling natural acquisition of language by the learner. According to Dalton-Puffer (2007),

The hub of the pro-CLIL argument is that the curricula of the so-called content subjects...constitute a reservoir of concepts, topics and meanings which can become the object of 'real communication' where natural use of the target language is possible...CLIL itself is one huge task which ensures the use of foreign language for 'authentic communication'...In other words, CLIL classrooms are seen as environments which provide opportunities for learning through acquisition rather than through explicit teaching. (p. 3; bold highlights are this author's own)

Quotation
Present tense
Integral

Dalton-Puffer however goes on to question the effectiveness with which this ideal scenario is being achieved in practice. She points to variances between the findings from her 2007 study of 40 European CLIL language transcripts and the argument underlying many CLIL implementations, namely that learners should "first and foremost use language for social interaction and communication with peers and experts, and this is the prerequisite for their being able to later internalize what was said as knowledge or competence" in the subject under instruction (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 9).

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integral

Her study found that much of CLIL classroom talk is specific to the highly structured environment of the classroom, thus restricting opportunities for students to effectively acquire authentic target language through social interaction and communication. She concluded that CLIL lessons are "likely to be good training grounds for listening to and reading in the foreign language, but less good training grounds for participation in speech events that are oriented towards interaction rather than transaction" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 295).

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integral

This conclusion finds support in other recent literature on classroom talk at all levels of education, which often tends to focus on shortcomings and restrictions imposed by the classroom environment, and at times, by the teachers themselves. [For instance, Hellermann (2008) applied a conversation analysis approach to study classroom talk in a U.S. high school biology project, and identified significant artificiality of teacher-student discourse sequences in the analyzed classroom interactions. [In Malaysia, Yassin, Ong, Alimon, Baharom and Lai (2010) found that teacher questioning strategies in nine CLIL primary science classrooms focused predominantly on eliciting known information from students in short utterances; this predominance of teacher talk restricted opportunities for students to express ideas or ask questions, thereby limiting learning to lower cognitive levels.]

Paraphrase
Simple past
Integral

Paraphrase
Simple past
Integral

It would seem a logical inference from Dalton-Puffer's conclusions that there is particular scope for improvement when the language classroom aims to replicate the conditions of a target environment that is often highly interactive in nature. One such target environment would be the corporate workplace, which undergraduate business communication classrooms aim to replicate to varying extents depending on the specific pedagogy applied. For all the challenges that it entails, this type of classroom forms the focus of this paper.

2. What This Paper Aims to Achieve

To address the issues identified above, this paper will explore ways to move beyond viewing classroom talk as a barrier to authenticity, seeking instead to use it as a means of bringing greater authenticity to the language learning classroom. This approach complements the nature of work done by Gil (2001) in analyzing the interplay between pedagogic and natural modes in classroom discourse. She suggests that these two types of talk are complementary, and cites Edmonson's view (1985) that different discursive activity can combine to help learners effectively acquire a foreign language.

The present discussion is confined to a specific aspect of language learning, namely the learning of business communication at undergraduate level in Hong Kong. Within this context, the wider aim is to make more authentic the language learning environment that supports the Hong Kong business undergraduate's transition to the corporate community that he or she anticipates joining upon graduation. This entails exploring the viability of participants in the business communication classroom simultaneously assuming two different situated identities (Zimmermann, 1998 cited in Richards, 2006) in their

interactions and discourse: teacher and student within the classroom, and participants in a corporate context.

Relevant texts from both academic and corporate literature are analyzed to identify ways in which workplace discourse might be effectively transferred to the classroom without loss of authenticity. In seeking ways to achieve this "authenticity transfer" from one environment to another, the wider, long-term goal is to move towards devising a research-based methodology for enhancing business communication classroom talk, which could also have wider applications beyond the Hong Kong context described in section 5.

3. Scope of This Research

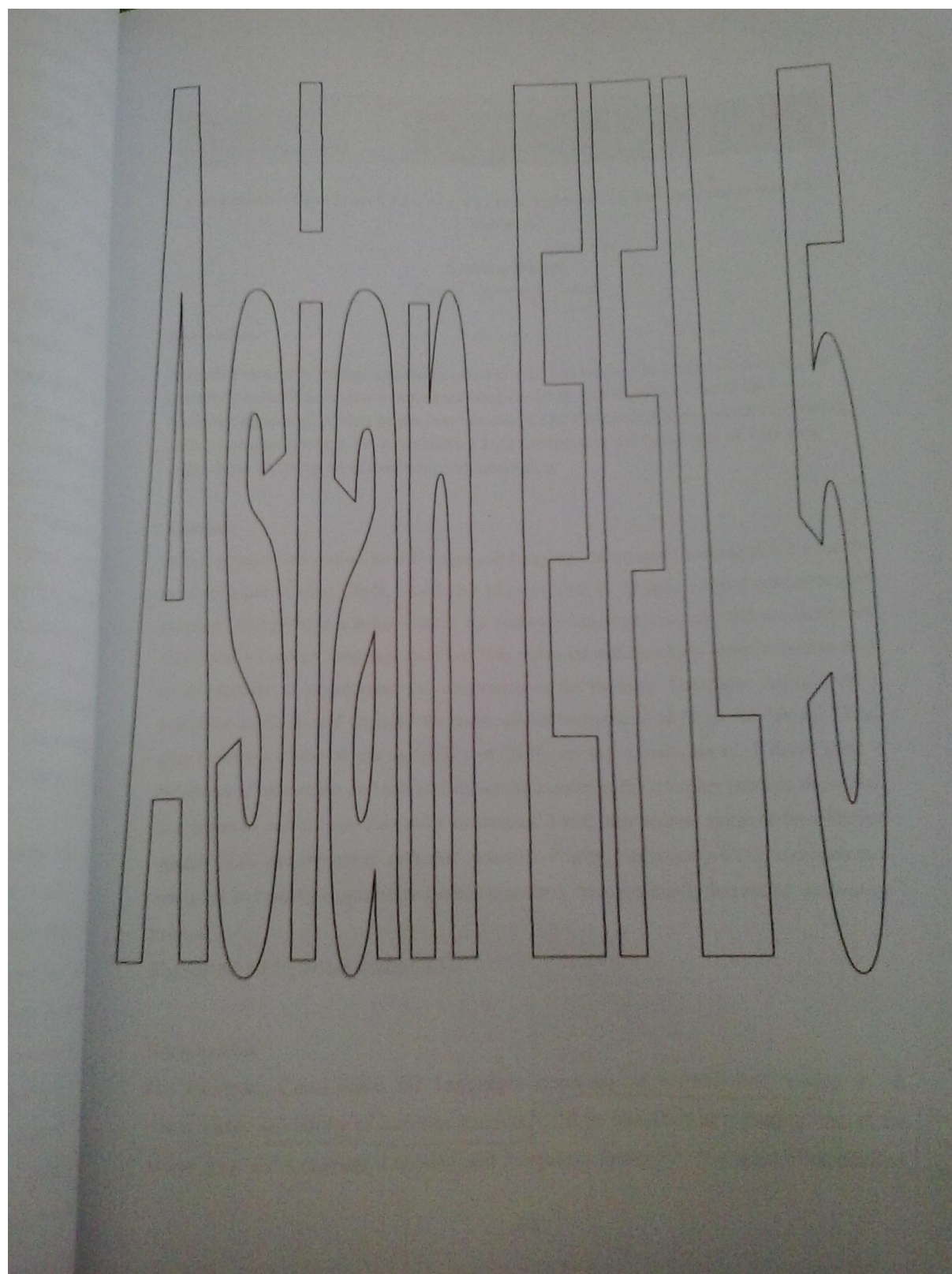
It is clear from studies such as Hellermann (2008) and Yassin et al. (2010) that the underlying quality of teaching can itself have a negative impact on overall learning effectiveness in CLIL classrooms. For instance, had more effective questioning strategies been applied in Yassin et al.'s (2010) study, the levels of learning achieved in their studied classrooms might conceivably have been higher. Such studies, however, vary significantly in the nature of pedagogical deficiencies exhibited, hence it is not the aim of this paper to analyze samples of classroom talk across different contexts with the aim of drawing general principles for effective pedagogy - that endeavour would be larger than can be accommodated in a paper of this length. Rather, the core research objective is to seek ways to make learning in CLIL classrooms more effective specifically through enhancing *authenticity* of classroom discourse, and the scope of this paper will be confined to the presentation and theoretical validation of a proposed research methodology for achieving this objective.

4. Structure of This Paper

This rest of this paper begins with a description of the context within which this research was first conceived. It then presents the theoretical rationale behind the research and the comparative literature-based research methodology proposed. After testing the methodology through the analysis of various literature samples, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made for further work.

5. The Teaching Context

Two aspects of context are considered in this section: Hong Kong's socio-linguistic backdrop to English language learning, and the business communication teaching methodologies applied in Hong Kong's government-funded tertiary institutions.



Authenticity of Purpose: CLIL as a way to bring meaning and motivation into EFL contexts

Richard Pinner
Sophia University, Japan

Bioprofile:

Richard Pinner is a teacher and teacher trainer who has worked in London and Japan. He recently produced a chapter in an edited book on CLIL and is guest editor of the forthcoming special edition of the *International CLIL Research Journal* which is focusing on the Japanese context. He is currently a PhD candidate at the University of Warwick where he is focusing on authenticity and motivation.

Abstract

In this paper I will outline how Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be used to achieve what Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 5) refer to as "authenticity of purpose" and provide a better vehicle for authentic language exposure and production in English as a Foreign Language contexts. This increased authenticity is hypothesised to lead to an increase in engagement and motivation in the learning. The paper begins with a definition of CLIL and explains the sociocultural background of the methodology. Then, after briefly looking at the suitability of CLIL for the Asian context, I move onto a definition of motivation and authenticity whilst examining the interplay between them both in relation to content and classroom interaction. I will then address some of the criticism against CLIL and the use of authentic materials. Finally, I advocate a CLIL approach as a means of increasing exposure to authentic content, thus potentially increasing motivation to learn.

Keywords: CLIL, Asian context, EFL

Introduction

The European Commission for Languages states on its website that "owing to its effectiveness and ability to motivate learners, CLIL is identified as a priority area in the Action plan for Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity" (European Commission,

2012). The growing interest in CLIL not only in Europe but also worldwide, such as Japan and other parts of Asia, has meant an exponential growth in conferences, workshops, publications and research funding in recent years. I first came into contact with CLIL methodologies in 2011, after moving to Japan and finding work with Sophia University in Tokyo. I was hired by the English Literature Department primarily as a language teacher. Although my undergraduate degree is in English Literature my master's degree and current PhD research is in the field of Applied Linguistics. My role at the English Literature Department is primarily to teach skills classes, designed to help the English majors to develop a heightened language ability whilst at the same time teaching them about English Literature. The Literature Department specifically advocates a CLIL approach and assessments are expected to reflect learning in both areas of content and language.

What is CLIL?

The Literature Department's specification that assessments should reflect progress in both content (literature) and language areas is in keeping with popular definitions of CLIL, such as the often cited "dual focused aims" (Marsh, 2002, p. 2) where both content and language are the focus of instruction and assessment. Q/P/I

Mehisto offers the definition that "CLIL is a dual-focused teaching and learning approach in which the L1 and an additional language [...] are used for promoting both content mastery and language acquisition to pre-defined levels" (2012, pp. 52-53). Quotation Present to Non-Int

It could be said that, in essence, CLIL is about killing two birds with one stone. Marsh explains that this provides added value and efficiency for both the students and the institutions offering CLIL courses (2002, p. 175). Quotation Present Non-Int

Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis (2008, p. 9) claim that although the term 'CLIL' was only coined in 1994, the concept has been in existence for thousands of years. Q/P

CLIL originated in Europe but it is in existence and has been studied extensively under other guises throughout the world. It is closely connected with the early immersion experiments conducted in Canada into bilingual education (see Navés, 2009 for a summary). Quotation Present Non-Int

Dalton-Puffer acknowledges that terms such as Content-Based Instruction, Bilingual Teaching and Dual-Language Programs all have their own histories, "contextual roots and accompanying slightly different philosophical implications" (2007, p. 1). Q/P

however these terms are in many respects synonymous with CLIL. Further terms such as English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) and Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) show that there is a growing trend towards the combination of content and language

disciplines in order to achieve the ever diversifying educational needs of today's global institutions.

CLIL is taking place and has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education. Its success has been growing over the past 10 years and continues to do so. (European Commission, 2012)

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integral

Despite the potential for CLIL to offer educational gains in two distinct areas (language and content), it is not merely a cost-cutting or bureaucratic imposition on teaching practice. However, it is true that in many ways, CLIL offers greater challenges to teachers and students alike. Language teachers and content teachers must work together in collaboration and share their skills. It is rare for a teacher to be qualified and experienced in both language and content teaching simultaneously. Also, for students, the dual-focus of the CLIL class means that the workload can seem very demanding at times. Despite this, CLIL has been found to be extremely successful in achieving its dual aims in programs around the world, especially in Europe (see, for example European Commission, 2012). It can seem more challenging, but at the same time more motivating and authentic for students and teachers (Marsh, 2002, p. 72).

Quotation / Present tense / Non-Integral.

The distinction between CLIL methodologies and those of more traditional EFL instruction, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Learning (TBL), is that CLIL is about teaching something else through the target language as a medium of instruction. Thus, in Vygotskyian (1978) terms, language is being used as a 'tool' through which other aims and objectives are achieved and knowledge is socially constructed. This also means that CLIL, by definition, evolves very much from a sociocultural framework of learning. This includes terms such as scaffolding (the interaction and negotiation of meaning between expert and less expert speakers), the zone of proximal development (ZPD), as well as lower and higher order thinking skills (LOTS and HOTS), as illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Paraphrase
Present tense
Integral.

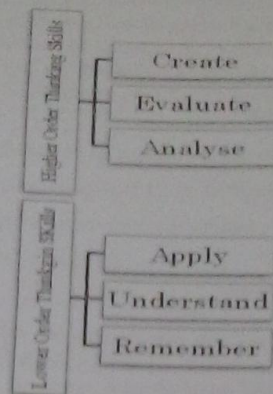


Figure 1: LOTS and HOTS (adapted from Anderson, & Krathwohl, 2001).

CLIL is more concerned with the HOTS, but naturally these are dependent on the existence of LOTS. For this reason, CLIL is more cognitively engaging for both students and teachers. Whilst this may increase the demands and difficulty of CLIL, it also leads to increased engagement and thus motivation.

Another important concept from sociocultural theory relating to CLIL is the ZPD, which refers to the abilities of a learner acting on their own and how far this ability can be extended with guidance in order to facilitate learning. In this respect, the ZPD is similar to what Krashen, in his *Monitor Theory* calls 'comprehensible input' or $L+1$ ² (1982). These terms are all central to the core CLIL methodology, and in many ways they simply reflect popular beliefs based on empirical research in the wider field of education (see for example Hattie, 2009). In other words, CLIL is nothing particularly special, other than the fact that it specifically employs strategies from educational research which have been shown to be effective and combines them with language learning practices, such as language learner autonomy and communicative competence. CLIL then, advocates what Ikeda (2012, p. 12) calls an "intentional organic" approach to language learning, in that language input and output arise naturally in the process of engaging with the content. Authenticity is also a key term in CLIL, and indeed practitioners such as Coyle, Hood and Marsh have criticised conventional EFL methodologies because they lack the "authenticity of purpose" (2010, p. 5) of CLIL classrooms.

Quotation / Present / Integral

Quotation / Present Perfect / Integral

² Level+1

Quotation / Present tense / Non-Integrated

It is challenging for language teachers to achieve appropriate levels of authenticity in the classroom. For example, even if 'authentic' texts are used, and the subject matter is highly relevant to the lives of the learners, the predominant reasons for these texts being in the lesson remains language learning. (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 11)

Authenticity is frequently referred to as a defining aspect of CLIL. Dalton-Puffer (2007) explains that one of the main advantages of CLIL is that content subjects give rise to 'real communication' by tapping into a great reservoir of ideas, concepts and meanings allowing for natural use of the target language (TL).

Quotation / Present tense / Non-Integrated

In this sense, CLIL is the ultimate dream of Communicative Language Teaching [CLT]... and Task Based Learning [TBL]... rolled into one: there is no need to design individual tasks in order to foster goal-directed linguistic activity with a focus on meaning above form, since CLIL itself is one huge task which ensures the use of the foreign language for 'authentic communication'. (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 3)

Such comments assert that authenticity is not just an important feature of CLIL methodology and practice, but actually a defining aspect of the entire approach and one of its greatest strengths over other foreign language instruction pedagogies such as CLT or TBL. The term 'authentic' however, is problematic because it is marred by a conceptual looseness which at times seems to make it difficult to define. Later in this paper I will return to the concept of authenticity in order to examine how it is related to motivation and why the CLIL approach can increase motivation by providing the aforementioned 'authenticity of purpose' which I have shown to be a defining feature of CLIL methodology.

Why CLIL in Japan and other Asian contexts?

In Japan, English education is given a very high level of importance, as demonstrated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's (MEXT) recent decision to implement English education from primary school level as of 2011. In China also, children begin learning English in the 3rd grade (around the age of 8). The ability to speak English is held in high esteem throughout most of Asia. Japanese English school adverts sell the language as a career boosting, world unlocking, missing piece in the struggle for success (Seargeant, 2009, pp. 107-131). However, despite the ideology of English and its prestige, Japan continues to feature on the lowest ranks of the TOEFL score board across Asia (Yoshida, 2009, p. 387). In a survey conducted by Benesse Corporation involving 4,718 participants, Yoshida noted that 55% claimed not to enjoy studying

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integrated

Quotation
Present tense
Non-Integrated

English and 90% said that they were not confident in using English. It is perceived as exceedingly difficult for the Japanese to learn English. Although the educational policy and instructional methodology being used in Japan to teach English is often being revised to introduce better practice, teachers and institutions are rarely given enough support to implement them fully, and thus there remains a gap between what should be happening and what is happening in language classrooms.

Further, according to the English First *English Proficiency Index* (EPI, 2012), Japan, Hong Kong and South Korea are ranked as having only 'moderate proficiency' in English, whereas China, Taiwan and Indonesia are marked as having 'low proficiency'.

Paraphrase
Present tense
Integral

The situation seems worse for Thailand and Saudi Arabia, who are in the bottom category of 'very low proficiency'. Conversely, English education in Scandinavian countries such as Finland has been marked by great success. Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Finland and Norway all take up the top positions and are rated as having 'very high proficiency'.

The Finnish education system is receiving a lot of publicity in the Japanese media at the moment, and it seems that Japan is looking to Finland to provide a model for how its English education could be improved. One of the key aspects here is CLIL.

In 2007, 16 of the 24 Polytechnic Universities in Finland were offering full degree programs which were conducted entirely in English. The project was very successful (Isokallio & Grönholm, 2007) and more and more universities are following suit around the world.

Paraphrase
Simple Past
Non-Integral

In Japan, The University of Tokyo has just launched the PEAK program, which offers classes on Japan & East Asian Studies and Environmental Sciences entirely in English. At Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, teaching staff are specifically informed that they should use a Content-Based methodology for many of the English language programs offered to both English and non-English majors taking language courses. Sophia University is also leading the way in Japan as a centre for educational reform, utilizing (English as a Medium of Instruction) EMI and CLIL implementation. Sophia now, offers a degree in Global Environmental Studies, with English as the medium of instruction, as well as a module about CLIL as part of its Masters' Degree program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-Integral

Sophia also arranges annual conferences and training workshops with a regular focus on CLIL and is the base out of which the CLIL-Japan initiative is run (see Ikeda & Pinner, 2011). Many other schools and universities are offering CLIL components or EMI courses, and it was announced by MEXT (2006) that as many as 227 universities were offering one or more full-credit content courses taught in English.

Paraphrase
Present tense
Integral

WISCONSIN
ELECTORAL

Utilizing the CLIL Approach in a Japanese Primary School:
A Comparative Study of CLIL and EFL Lessons

Yuki Yamano

Graduate School, Sophia University

Bioprofile

Yuki Yamano is a graduate student in the doctoral course at the Graduate School of Language and Linguistics of Sophia University.

Abstract

In recent years, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the subject of attention, especially in East Asian countries, due to the introduction of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education in primary schools. However, limited empirical studies have been conducted regarding the feasibility and potentiality of content-integrated instruction in these contexts (Butler, 2005) with fewer studies related to Japanese primary schools. Therefore, this study explores the potential of CLIL application in a Japanese context from four important aspects, known as the 4Cs: Content (subject matter), Communication (language learned and used in the CLIL lesson), Cognition (cognitive skills), and Community/Culture (awareness toward learning community and pluricultural understanding) (Coyle, 2007; Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Mehisto, Marsh, & Frigols, 2008). This paper first defines Japanese primary EFL education and discusses the rationale for applying CLIL approach in a Japanese primary school context. Then, based on the 4Cs perspective, it investigates the differences between a CLIL class of 35 students in a cross-curricular instruction and a non-CLIL class of 36 students in conventional EFL instruction conducted under a common theme, and analyzes results from three different data sets: classroom observations, pupil questionnaires, and teachers' interviews. Lastly, the present study indicates the potential of CLIL approach in a Japanese primary EFL environment.

Keywords: CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), Japanese primary English education, comparative study, 4Cs perspectives

Introduction

In recent years, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the subject of attention, especially in East Asian countries, due to the introduction of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education in primary schools. However, a limited number of empirical studies have been conducted regarding the feasibility and potentiality of content-integrated instruction in these contexts (Butler, 2005). On the other hand, Coyle (2007) encouraged the CLIL research community "to be connected" by "involving more practitioner researchers in articulating theories of practice through learning communities" (p. 558). In regard to these issues, it is particularly important to investigate possible outcomes of CLIL at Japanese primary schools, in which English education was formally implemented in April 2011 and many teachers have been searching for effective educational programs (The Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP), 2012), while integrating CLIL research into Asian contexts. Therefore, this study explores the potentiality of CLIL at a Japanese primary school by utilizing the four principles of CLIL, known as the 4Cs: Content (subject matter), Communication (language), Cognition (cognitive skills), and Culture/Community (awareness toward learning community and pluricultural understanding) (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto et al., 2008).

Paraphrase
Present Perfect
Non-Integral

Quotation
Simple past
Integral

Paraphrase
Present Perfect
Non-Integral

Background

Summary
Present tense
Non-Integral

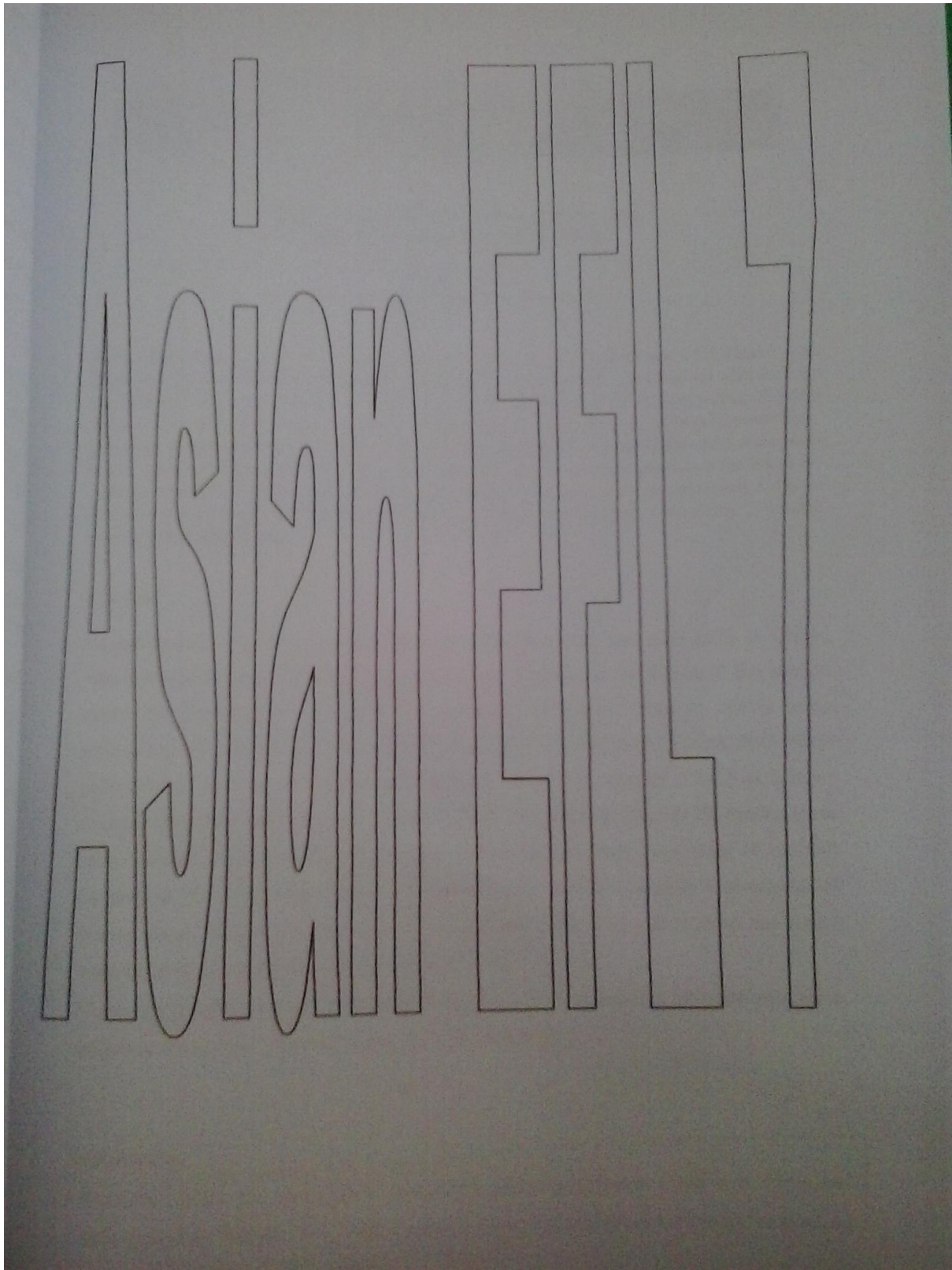
Japanese Primary EFL Education

Before discussing the implementation of the CLIL approach at a Japanese public primary school, it is necessary to first define the goals and characteristics of Japanese primary EFL education.

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the formal name of Japanese primary EFL education is "foreign language activities" (MEXT, 2009). Although it does not include a specific language in its name, MEXT (2009) clarifies that "[i]n principle, English should be selected for foreign language activities" (p. 1). The name of the subject itself represents the uniqueness of Japanese elementary EFL education, which is in fact different from that in other Japanese contexts such as junior and senior high schools.

Overall objectives of Japanese primary EFL education.

According to MEXT, the primary purpose of Foreign Language (FL) education is "to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages"



Chinese-English Bilingual Education in China:
Model, momentum, and driving forces

Riming Wei

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Bioprofile: Riming WEI is a Postdoctoral Fellow at the Department of Chinese and Bilingual Studies, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. His papers have appeared in journals including the *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* and *English Today*. His areas of research include curriculum and instruction in bilingual education, language policy, international spread of English (with a focus on China and Asia), and quantitative research methods. He is currently working on a monograph contracted to be published in 2013 by Springer (Heidelberg), entitled "*Initiating and Implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in China: A Shanghai Perspective*". Email: tonydingdang@hotmail.com

Abstract:

English-medium academic publications concerning bilingual education (BE) in China, which involves using a foreign language (usually English) to teach part of the subject matter of non-language subject(s), are emerging. This paper aims to clarify some misleading information and to challenge a number of viewpoints arising from these publications. It proposes Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as a more accurate label than immersion for the most widely used Chinese-English BE model, takes issue with the claim that there is no sign suggesting the strong popularity of BE will dissipate in the foreseeable future, and challenges the evidence used in a discussion of driving forces behind the BE "craze". It concludes with some suggestions for future research, such as identifying good practices of CLIL.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, foreign-medium instruction, bilingual education, content and language integrated learning, CLIL, immersion

Introduction

Fishman's (1976: 56) observation concerning majority-language students in Mainland China (hereafter "China") that "BE involving foreign languages is still rare" required no

Quotation / Presentence / Integral

modification until the turn of this century. In the public education sector, from the late 1990s, Chinese-English BE at the pre-tertiary level has been promoted by local governments in Shanghai, Jiangxi Province, Liaoning Province and some cities including Shenzhen, Guilin and Wuxi (Cheng, 2012; Wei, 2011). In comparison, this type of BE at the tertiary level has gained consistent support from state departments (e.g. the Ministry of Education) since 2001. In other words, Chinese-English BE at the tertiary level enjoys overt support from the state, while at primary and secondary levels it is, at best, endorsed by local governments (see Wei, 2011 for a more detailed review).

There is no shortage of publications in Chinese addressing aspects of Chinese-English BE for majority-language students since its emergence (cf. He, 2011) whereas those published in English (e.g. Hu, 2007) are just beginning to appear. Some misleading information and misinterpretations in the Chinese publications have been found and addressed by researchers (e.g. Fang, 2002; Wei & Xiong, 2005; Hu, 2008). A certain

misleading discourse can be detected in the emergent English publications and has yet to be addressed. The present article aims to address part of this problematic discourse, drawing upon official documents, research papers and interviews with six front-line teachers from four schools in Shanghai, viz. Schools A, B, C and D where the author collected part of the data for his doctoral study. It first challenges the claim that "partial

immersion" is "the model widely used and promoted for schools" (Feng, 2005: 538) casts doubt on the observation that "there is no sign that the BE craze will dissipate or even abate in the foreseeable future" (Hu, 2007: 116) and finally questions the evidence used in Hu's (2009) discussion of "driving forces behind the BE craze".

Frequent references will be made to Shanghai, the host city for the 2010 World Expo as it spearheads the experimentation of Chinese-English BE. Three indicators suggest that Shanghai has arguably the greatest potential, amongst the many regions in Mainland China, to achieve success in providing Chinese-English BE. Firstly, Shanghai in 1999 became the first region to promote Chinese-English BE as a regional-government-organised endeavour, which was followed by other provinces and cities mentioned above. Secondly, Shanghai boasts the most concentrated base for research on BE concerning majority-language students; for instance, the first university-affiliated research centre specializing in Chinese-English BE was founded at East China Normal University in Shanghai, the first academic journal (viz. *English Teaching and Research Notes*) to devote a column to this type of BE is based in Shanghai, and the first three bi-annual national conferences on BE were held in Shanghai (the fourth one concluded in Changchun in June

Summary / Present Perfect / Non-literal

Paraphrase / Present tense / Non-literal

Paraphrase
Present tense
Non-literal

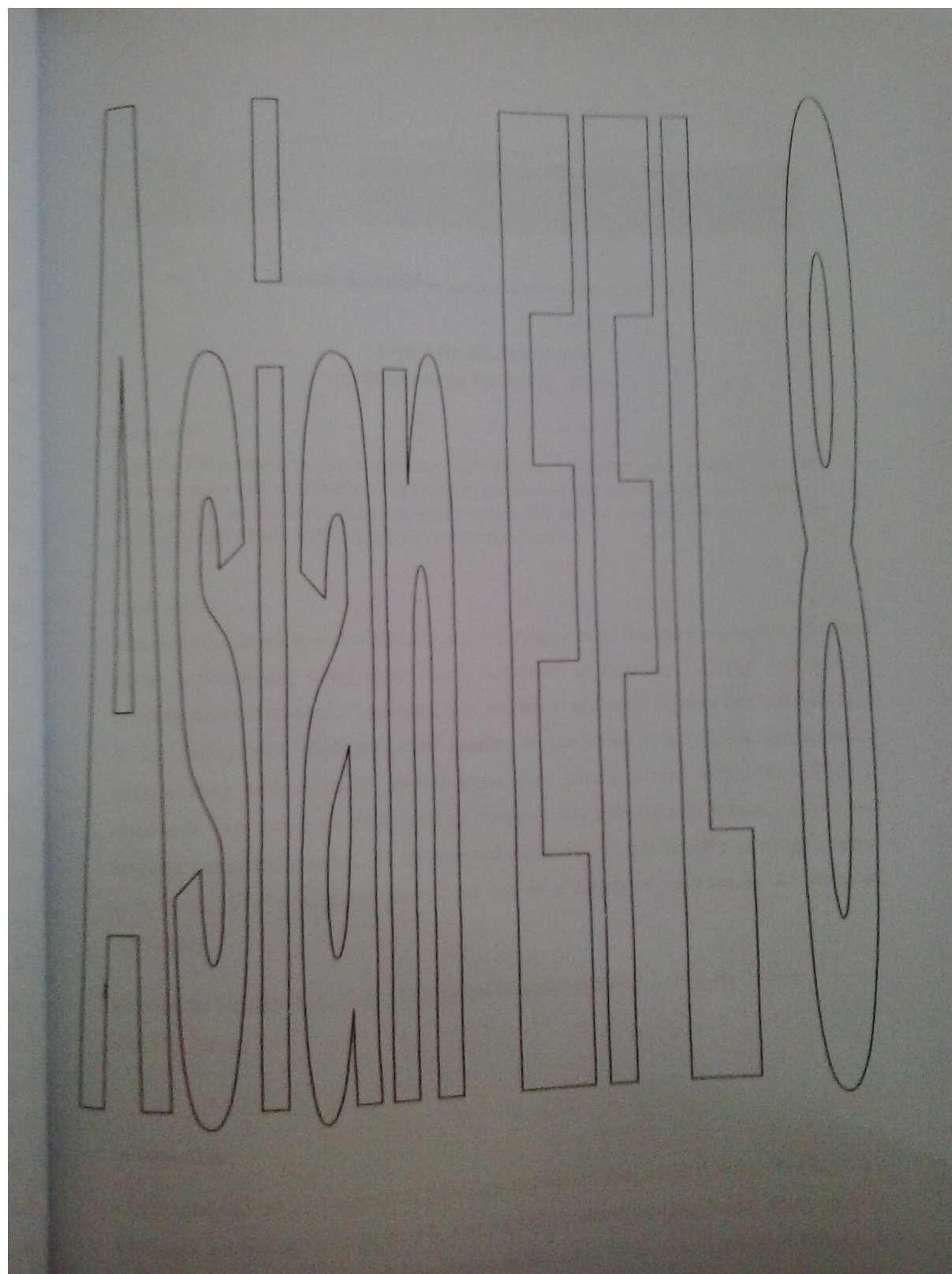
Paraphrase
Present tense
Literal

Summary
Present Perfect
Non-literal

Q / PT / N-l

Q / PT / N-l

Q / PT / I



Identity and Self in Second Language Acquisition

Sean Eric Kil Patrick Gay
Ritsumeikan University, Japan

Bioprofile

Sean Gay is a Lecturer at Ritsumeikan University in western Japan, where he teaches in the science and engineering department, promoting the development of English as an aspect of the students' future scientist selves. He is also working on research into pedagogy and a PhD addressing health and education

Abstract

Interest in the development of identity and self as aspects of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is increasing, being most deeply addressed in feminist, LGBTQ, and cultural minority fields of research. Examining how identity is addressed in these fields and looking at the pedagogical implications of moving to an identity and self-formation-based understanding of SLA could produce a necessary paradigm shift within the ESL/EFL classroom. This paradigm shift could go alongside the shift towards a more content and language integrated learning (CLIL) oriented classroom, a shift from the language learned as a language to a language learned for use in a variety of contexts by a variety of individuals.

Keywords: Identity, Self, CLIL, Contextual language learning, LGBT, Feminism, Minority issues.

Introduction

Identity and self are two aspects of language acquisition that, while it is true that there is a significant amount of research in this area, is often considered a peripheral issue; whereas in many ways it ought to be considered the primary issue in the development of students as individuals and as language learners. This paper's primary goal is to provide a basic

understanding of identity research as it stands, and to address the further question as to how these concepts effect language learning in the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classroom and how to improve acquisition by incorporating concepts of self-formation into the content chosen for integrated language learning.

Approaches to Identity in Second Language Acquisition

Identity is a broad topic, and, as such, is often broken down to subcategories. The approaches to identity research in language have thus been broken up into several categories. Feminism, lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ), and cultural categories are each important in their own right, but in order to form a more generalizable picture, we need to look at identity in the broad context as well. On the other hand, maintaining these lines of research, and keeping in mind that they are where these studies began will help avoid identity and self research from falling into the trap of 'heteronormativity' (Dalley & Campbell, 2006; King, 2008). The pretext of what is 'normal' often acts against the move towards generalizability, and as such it is important to examine specific aspects of a phenomena in order to account for the 'normal' as well as the 'queer' (King, 2008).

Feminist Identity Research

The key concept of identity in feminist research is the concept of identity as a collective and emergent trait from narratives. According to Benhabib:

The narrative view of identity regards individual as well as collective identities as woven out of tales and fragments belonging both to oneself and to others. While narrativity stresses otherness and the fluidity of the boundaries between the self and others, authoritarian and repressive movements respond to the search for certainty, for rigid definitions, for boundaries and markers. (1999, 351).

This conceptualization of identity is common throughout the literature, but often unstated. Benhabib (1999) noted the strength of this conceptual structure, but also the uneasiness associated with such a fluid sense of identity. The allure of the certitude accompanying authoritarian concepts of identity is as powerful as those rigid boundaries are dangerous.

Burck (2011) approached the issue of identity, specifically the aspect of identity formation in SLA as often being a form of mimicry. In some regards this is less a matter of what the student was saying, and more of a manner of how the student said it, through language and actions (Burck, 2011, Sims, 2004). Students would be defining their new

A large, stylized outline of the words "WASH STATE" in a bold, blocky font, suitable for coloring. The letters are thick and have a slightly irregular, hand-drawn appearance. The word "WASH" is on the left and "STATE" is on the right, with a small gap between them. The entire graphic is rendered in a single dark outline on a light background.

Towards a Critically and Dialogically Mediated EAP

Glenn Toh

Tamagawa University

Bioprofile: Glenn Toh has taught English for Academic Purposes in New Zealand, Hong Kong, Japan and his native Singapore. He has also lectured on post-graduate teacher training programs in TEFL and TESOL in Thailand, Laos, Vietnam and other parts of the Asia-Pacific.

Abstract

This article addresses issues surrounding an interesting development in Japan – the introduction of academic content courses in English at a growing number of Japanese universities – where Japanese has incumbently and traditionally been the medium of instruction. This late development has resulted in a greater demand for the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The article begins with a discussion of relevant literature concerning the socio-historic nature of knowledge and meaning making and how it relates to the teaching of EAP before a critical examination of matters arising from the author's lived experience of two separate teaching situations involving EAP. The article concludes by noting that matters to do with language, meaning making as well as teacher and student subjectivities need to be considered in EAP course conceptualization and planning.

Keywords: Academic Literacies, Critical Praxis, Critical Pedagogy

Introduction

In the last five or so years, there have been interesting developments in higher education in Japan as universities seek to renew, reinvent or otherwise reinvigorate their curricula. One notable observation that can be made about these recent developments is that a significant number of universities have been seeking to have more faculty content courses taught in English where Japanese has all along been the medium of instruction. The choice of English suggests higher education in Japan to be buying into ideological discourses that both naturalize and legitimate the primacy of English as an international language (Oda, 2007; Phillipson, 2008).

Summary / Present tense / Non-Integral.

Alongside the increase in number of content courses in English has come an increased demand for EAP, with the ostensible aim of equipping students with the necessary academic literacies to be able to participate meaningfully in content courses conducted in English. In practical terms, however, teaching EAP may not be a simple or straightforward move involving hiring more teachers, ordering textbooks and self-access material and adjusting the existing syllabus to give it an academic bent. It would be even less about quickly modifying the ubiquitous 4-skills general English programs to have them labeled as courses in academic English.

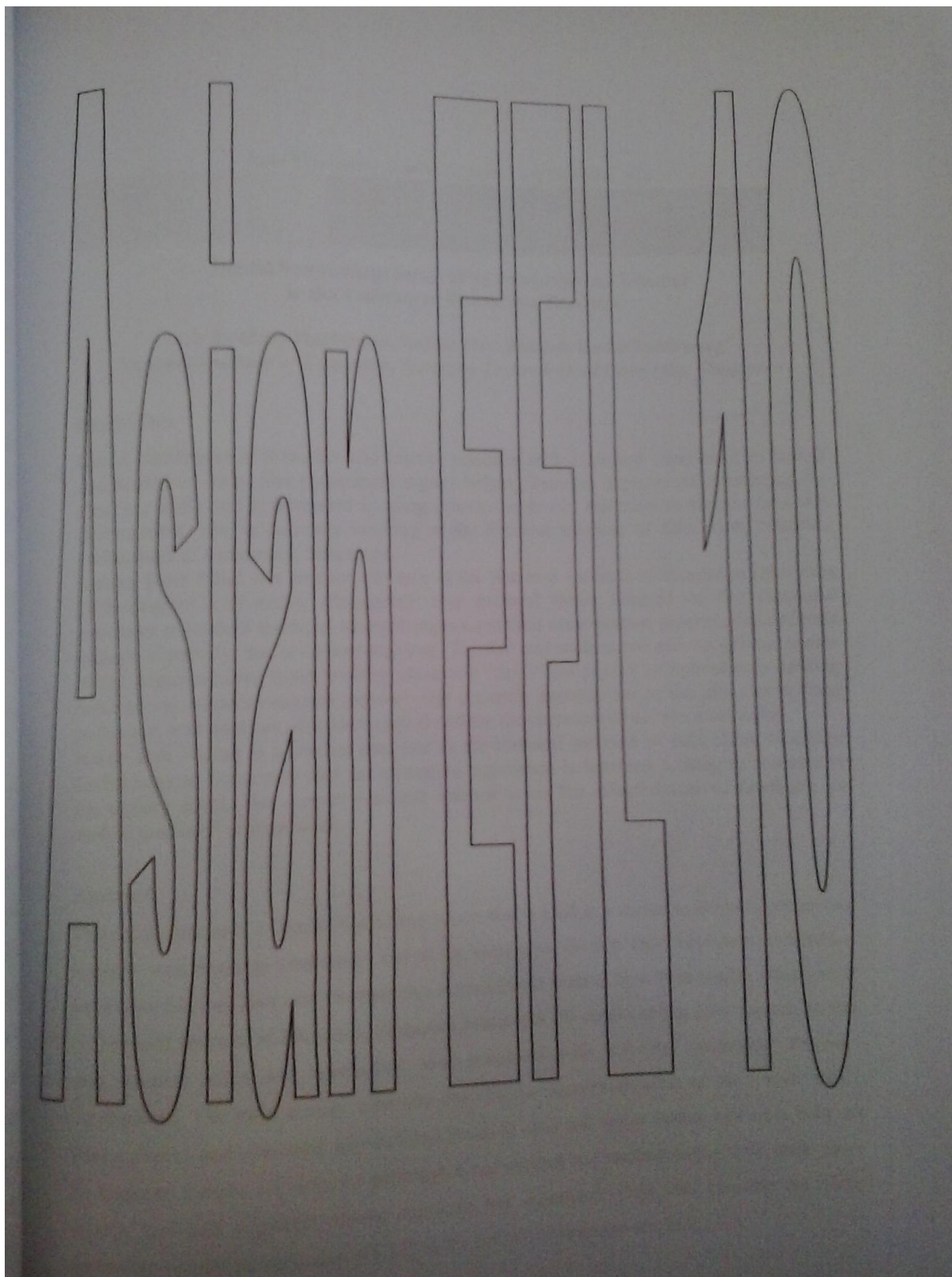
Needless to say, with these new developments will come different challenges in course planning as well as concerns about the nature and purpose of EAP in relation to how these developments are perceived by the various stakeholders – administrators, academic faculty, incumbent teachers of general English not leaving out the students. This is bound to happen as new spaces become open for enlivened discussions over the role of English language teaching vis-à-vis the running of academic courses in English and while new sites of contestation emerge as people of different professional persuasions vie for voice and influence. Such contestations and their outcomes will without doubt influence EFL teacher and learner subjectivities and warrant deeper scrutiny in terms of both epistemological influences and ideological implications.

Framing the Issues

Meaning is Dynamic and Socio-historically Situated

In the following discussion, I will examine how a pedagogy that encourages critique and dialogic thinking can be incorporated into the teaching of EAP and content courses in English, with the aim of helping students engage meaningfully and imaginatively with content areas. To do this, I will follow socio-constructivist understandings of knowledge and meaning making as opposed to static and normative understandings (Block, 2007) and discuss how they can be incorporated into EAP programs and content courses delivered in English in an EFL situation like Japan. The discussion sets out to follow a dynamic view of meaning where meaning is socially constructed, contextually bound, multi-layered and relates, epistemologically speaking, to the socio-historic conditions of its construction (Williams, 2010).

In taking on such a view of knowledge and meaning, I seek to move beyond (a) overriding concerns with fixed, positivistic, normative and decontextualized constructions of knowledge and meaning (b) a preoccupation with language as form, structure and



Digital Storytelling: Integrating Language and Content in the Training of Pre-service Teachers

Linda Mary Hanington, Anitha Devi Pillai & Kwah Poh Foong
National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

Bioprofiles:

Linda Hanington is a teacher and teacher educator with extensive experience in Europe and Southeast Asia. She particularly enjoys helping learners improve their listening and speaking skills and is interested in using relevant authentic materials to support language development. She is currently working at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore.

Anitha Devi Pillai is a teacher educator at the National Institute of Education (Nanyang Technological University, Singapore). Her doctoral thesis focused on the discourse structures of student teachers' research papers and their acculturation practices to academic writing. Currently, she is co-investigating 'Teacher and student perceptions of peer review in the argumentative essay writing classroom' and 'The impact of information seeking behavior on student research papers'. Her research interests are in the areas of writing pedagogy, text-analysis of student papers and the development of written tests/tasks.

Kwah Poh Foong is a teacher educator at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University and has extensive experience in teaching writing to students at the tertiary level. Her current research interest is on the effectiveness of feedback on student teachers' written work.

Abstract

This article discusses a Digital Storytelling course that is used as a means to promote pre-service teachers' own language proficiency and at the same time develop their awareness of teaching techniques they can later adopt in their own classrooms. It looks at how three teacher educators at the National Institute of Education, Singapore interpreted the course and at how content, in this case teaching ideas and approaches, was integrated with activities promoting language development. The three teacher educators describe the conceptualization of the course, which takes a project- and task-based approach and blends in class and online modes, how links between the language focused activities the participants experienced and methodologies were made more explicit, and how a process writing approach was actualized. They also consider the wider applicability of this interpretation of CLIL in the training of language teachers.

Keywords: CLIL, Digital Storytelling, process writing approach, proficiency, methodology.

Introduction

This article explores a Digital Storytelling course that is used as a way of promoting student teachers' own language proficiency in parallel with the development of teaching techniques the same student teachers can later adopt in their classroom contexts. The impetus for the course was the desire to integrate a focus on developing participants' spoken and written communication and grammar in use through a short intensive program that they would attend over a period of two weeks. The topic of Digital Storytelling was chosen as a way to achieve this using content relevant to the course participants who are student teachers on pre-service courses. This paper looks at how content, in this case teaching ideas and methods, was integrated with activities promoting language development, and at how this approach could usefully be transferred to other teacher training contexts where fostering student teachers' language proficiency in parallel with developing their teaching skills is considered crucial.

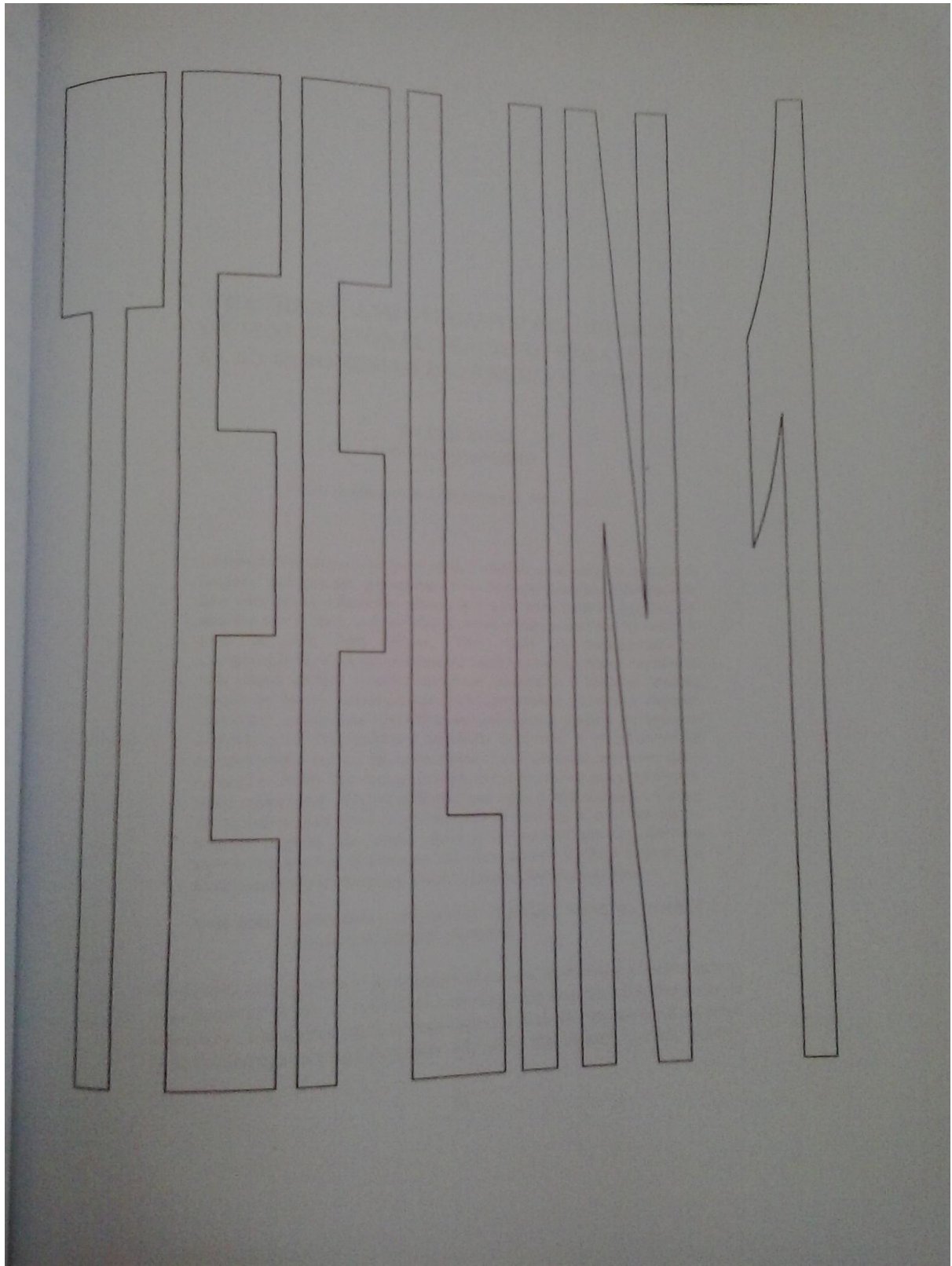
Since the mid-nineties *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) has been gaining ground as an approach to learning, and is generally seen as an approach to bilingual content based education. This paper takes a somewhat different approach and considers how CLIL can enhance the training of language teachers. The broad approach taken is in line with Kolb's (1984) cycle of experiential learning, which integrates concrete experience with reflection on this experience leading into abstract conceptualization and active experimentation with what has been learned. What CLIL does in our interpretation is combine an experience and discussion of teaching approaches with a focus on the development of the teachers' own language proficiency.

Phrases
Recent paper
integral.

Background

The National Institute of Education (NIE) is the sole provider of pre-service training for teachers entering the Singapore school system. It is also a provider of in-service and professional development courses for qualified teachers.

The course explored in this article is one of a suite of language and content enhancement courses taken by all pre-service teachers on diploma and degree courses who are preparing to teach in primary schools in Singapore and who will be required to offer English as a subject. It is the first part of a longer program and the two-week intensive



TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING STRATEGIES IN AN INDONESIAN HIGH SCHOOL CONTEXT

Sri Puji Astuti
(cici.astuti@vuw.ac.nz)

Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

Abstract: The primary purpose of this multiple case study is to explore teachers' and learners' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies. The data were obtained from two schools in a small town in West Sumatra, Indonesia; one is from an international standard high school and the other is from a local high school. This study is underpinned by Dornyei's (2001) work on motivational teaching practice which consists of four phases on how a teacher motivates students in a language learning classroom, namely: creating motivational components, generating students' motivation, maintaining motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. This qualitative case study is intended to contextualise the research within the real life environment of an Indonesian secondary classroom (Yin, 2003). The findings indicate that there are two groups of motivational components. The first is the teachers' rapport with students, including the encouragement given to students and the building of trust and respect with the students. The second relates to the teachers' planning decisions such as the selection of classroom activities, the way feedback is given, the management of the classroom, and the choice of learning resources.

Keywords: motivation, motivational teaching strategies, teachers' perceptions, students' perception

Motivation is a significant determinant of success in learning a second or foreign language. It can be defined as a driving force that pushes someone to do something. The teacher plays an important role in motivating students especially in the foreign language classroom. My study investigates teachers' percep-

tions of motivational teaching strategies in an Indonesian high school context. The underlying assumption is that teachers use strategies to motivate their students. Motivation is interpreted in slightly different ways. [The root of motivation is from the Latin verb, "movere" which means to move (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 3).] Researchers view motivation as the driver of human action for a special purpose (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei, 2001; McDonough, 2007). [The psycho social views that to be motivated means to move to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000).] In Gardner's socio-educational model, motivation is defined as the learner's orientation or as the goal to learn a target language (Gardner, 1999). Nakata (2006) states that motivation has a link to cognition, feeling and emotion, and the environment. [The view that motivation and emotion are strongly bound is endorsed by MacIntyre (2002).] In relation to this study, I define motivation as factors or reasons that move or drive learners to learn English as a foreign language.

Q / PT / H-1

S / PT / H-1

P / PT / H-1

P / PT / H-1

P / PT / I

P / PT / I

The skill of motivating learners to learn second/foreign language is reported by many teachers as the most important but difficult skill in teaching, after managing classrooms (Dornyei, 2001). Studies of motivation in second/foreign language learning reveal that student motivation is influenced by factors such as teachers, classroom climate and assessment (Ghenghesh, 2010; Kikuchi, 2009; Matsumoto, 2009; Yeung, Lau, & Nie, 2011). Thus, the role of teacher in motivating high school learners to learn a second/foreign language is very significant. The study also implies that teachers can determine student language learning motivation and maybe able to increase or decrease it (Kikuchi, 2009).

P / PT / H-1

S / PT / H-1

P / PT / H-1

Meanwhile, in the context of Indonesian learners, having the characteristics of low motivation is often included. One of the causes is the large classroom size (Bradford, 2007). This is supported by Lamb (2007) who found that Indonesian high school students are initially motivated to learn but their experience of learning English at school decreases their motivation over time. In general, Indonesian students, like other Southeast Asian students, tend to be passive and nonverbal in class. They rarely initiate class discussions until they are called on. This is because of the nature of the course content, teaching methods and assessment (Bradford, 2007). They do not want to show off what they know and they do not want to lose face in case their answers are incorrect (Park, 2000). Moreover, relating English to the daily life of Indonesian students becomes another problem in increasing their motivation in learning the language. It is due to the fact that English is a foreign language not a second language in Indonesia (Liando, Moni, & Baldauf, 2005). The students do not

P / PT / H-1

P / SP / I

P / PT / H-1

P / PT / H-1

P / PT / H-1

have life experience using English and they are not expected to be able to speak English in their future careers. The students use the Lingua Franca, Bahasa Indonesia, most of the time, at school and sometimes at home. Clearly, the social and cultural environments do not provide strong support for learning English.

Much research has been conducted to find out the students' motivation in learning language. One of the researchers is Martin Lamb (2003) who conducted a series of research studies by looking at 11-12 years old children's English learning motivation in the Indonesian context. They are junior high school students and most of them start learning English for the first time. In elementary school, English is not a compulsory subject. Lamb used open and closed questionnaire items followed by class observation and interviews. His findings indicated that student motivation both instrumental and integrative motivation in relation to learning English as a global language is high. Instrumental motivation is the reason for learning English because of the usefulness of English and integrative motivation relates to the willingness and interest in social interaction with native speakers of English (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). The conclusion of this study suggests that the English teaching methods and materials be changed. This is also supported by Liando, et al. (2005) who found that Indonesian secondary students have more integrative motivation, considering English as a global language, rather than instrumental motivation.

Subsequently, Lamb continued his study with similar students and found that students need to be autonomous learners because the school English curriculum and the teaching methods do not accommodate what the learners need in terms of English skills (Lamb, 2004). Later, Lamb (2007) found that learners are initially motivated to learn English in the first year of junior high school. The learners have very positive attitudes towards English and they have high expectations of successfully mastering the language. However, their attitude toward learning English in a formal school context tends to deteriorate. These studies show how English as a compulsory subject is viewed by Indonesian learners. The learners are motivated to be successful in gaining English skills, particularly the ability to use English for communication purposes when they start to learn but teachers and schools do not teach English in a way that meets students' expectations. Therefore, this study is conducted to explore the nature of the teaching and learning process in English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom with a particular focus on how teachers generate and enhance students' motivation to learn English. By exploring the teachers' and the learners' perception of motivational teaching strategies, I investigate the connection be-

P/PT/1

P/PT/H-1

P/SP/1

P/SP/H

P/SP/1

tween the teachers' motivational teaching strategies and their impacts on students' learning motivation.

However, a limited amount of research has been conducted to find out the effect of implementing motivational teaching strategies on students' motivation. Nine studies have used Dornyei's motivational strategies (Cheng & Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Rucach, 2009; Sugita & Takeuci, 2010; Xavier, 2005; Ziyuan, 2004). These nine studies found that there is a correlation between teacher motivational strategies and students' motivation (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011). However, the teachers are not aware that their motivational strategies have impact on learners' motivation (Kassing, 2011). On the other hand, Sugita and Takeuci's (2010) study indicates only a few motivational strategies have a correlation with students' motivation and the effectiveness of the strategies varied according to students' language level. In the Taiwanese context, Cheng and Dornyei (2007) reveal that some motivational strategies are transferable across cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts but some strategies are culture-sensitive or even culture-dependent. This finding is supported by Nugroho's study (2007) in Indonesian university context and Xavier's (2005) study in an Brazilian high school context. It is important to research motivational strategies in Indonesian high school context to understand whether student and age, the classroom and culture context influence student motivation.

It appears that there is no study of motivational teaching strategies in Indonesian high school context. Hence, there is a need to research this area so Indonesian teachers of English may understand the sources of students' motivation and they can help the students to enhance their motivation by implementing suitable motivational teaching strategies. This study is underpinned by Dornyei's (2001) work on Motivational Teaching Strategies. He identified a total of 102 such strategies, which he grouped into four phases: creating motivational components; generating students' motivation; maintaining motivation; and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. These phases are built on each other so that student motivation is created, generated, maintained and encouraged (Dornyei, p. 29). The underlying assumption of this framework is that teachers' behaviours and beliefs have a direct influence on learners.

This framework is grounded and constructed from empirical studies. Among the motivation frameworks in second and foreign language learning, Dornyei's (2001) framework is believed to be comprehensive and systematic

S/PT/N-I

S/PT/N-I

P/PT/N-I

P/PT/I

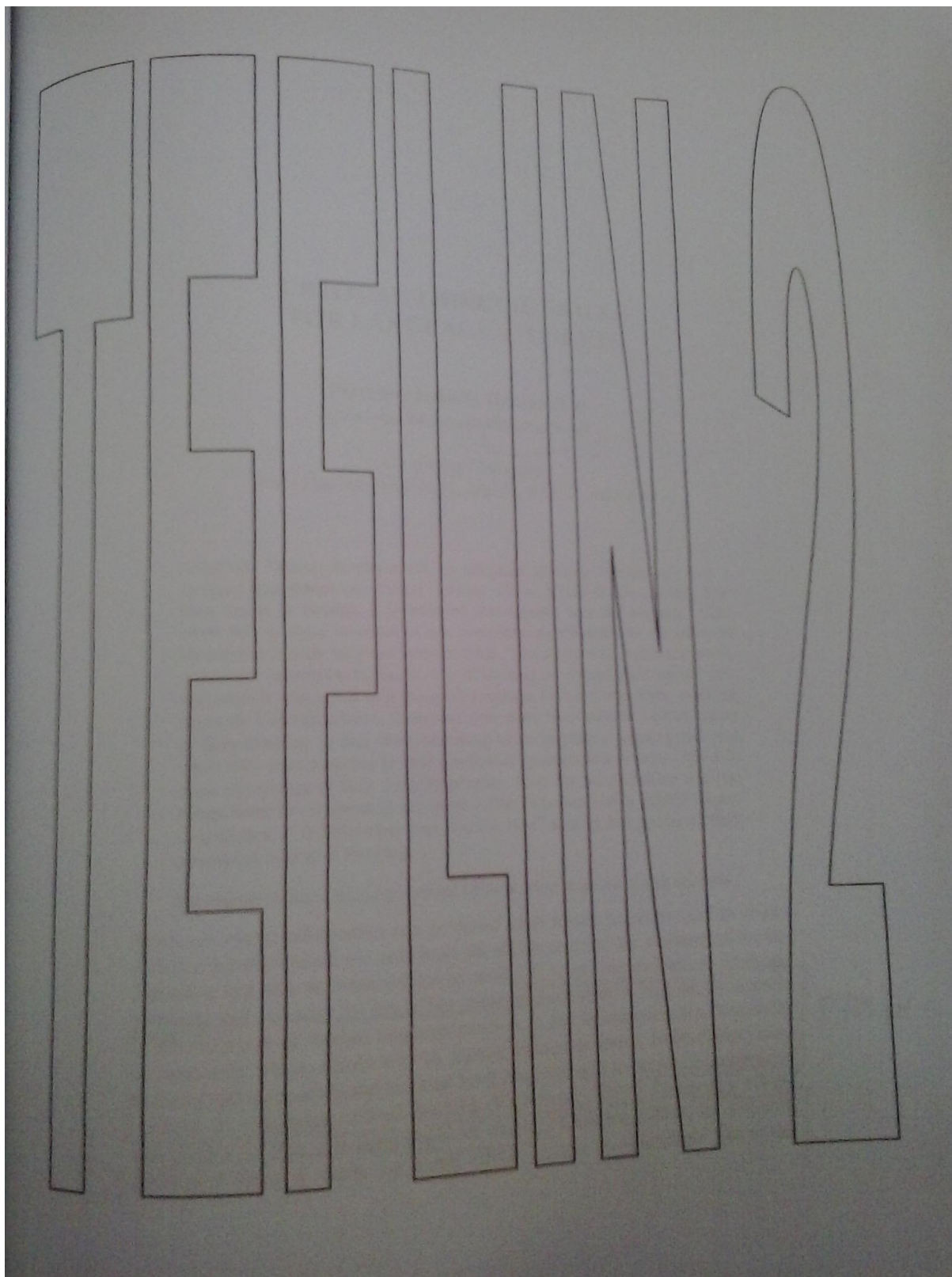
P/PT/I

P/PT/I

P/PT/I

Q/PT/N-I

S/PT/N-I



CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS FOR LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Patrisius Istiarto Djiwandono
(patrisius.istiarto@machung.ac.id)

Ma Chung University
Villa Puncak Tidar N-01, Malang 65151, Indonesia

Abstract: Recent developments in language teaching increasingly put a stronger importance on critical thinking skills. While studies in this area have begun to emerge, it is believed that a probe into the learners' mind when they process information can contribute significantly to the effort of identifying exactly how our learners think. This study was conducted partly to seek the answers to the issue. A brief training on critical thinking and critical attitude was given to a group of language learners who were studying Business Correspondence. Questionnaires were then used to capture traces of their thinking as they were preparing to accomplish a learning task and while they were listening to their classmates' presentation of ideas. The data show the change of their thinking process. After the training there is a tendency from the students to ask more critical questions with slightly higher frequencies. It is concluded then that the brief training has prompted their awareness of critical thinking.

Keywords: critical thinking, critical attitude, awareness, language students

In an era where information is a potential asset which presents itself in abundance, a scholar should not only have the ability to grasp the contents of the information but also exercise critical reasoning to select pieces that are most appropriate and valuable for his or her purpose. Such skill is high on the agenda of development of foreign language learners in the information era, especially in Indonesia where conformity to group, teacher-centered instructions, rote-learning and memory-based learning have been thought to constrain Indonesian students in exercising critical thinking (Richmond, 2007). Pioneering efforts and studies on this area have begun to emerge. Chandra (2004), for instance, concluded from a study on three ethnic groups in Indonesia (Javanese,

P/PT/N-1

Muningsih and Husek Tohy find while the obligation to respect authority figures may restrain critical thinking in these ethnic groups, the habit of open discussion and reaching collective consensus seem to promote critical reasoning. Figure 10.1 KUSUMAH (2006) noted that Indonesian students are widely regarded as lacking critical attitude and ignorance of the principles of analysis and critique. In line with this, Truherman (2006) also found that the Indonesian college respondents' critical thinking ability was lower than average college students in the U.S.A.

P/M/i

P/Pt/i

P/Pt/i

Taken as whole, these recent studies point out that the foundation of critical thinking education in Indonesia has yet to become stronger and more solid. Such endeavor to begin mapping out the current condition of Indonesian manpower's ability in critical reasoning should be greeted with positive responses and more empirical studies to establish data-driven principles of how to develop critical thinking skills in today's Internet generation.

The paper presents a report of a small-scale exploratory research on the implementation of critical thinking exercise for junior students of English as a foreign language. It describes how critical thinking skill is introduced to the students who are taking Business Correspondence class, presents how critical thinking proceeds in their mind after they execute some learning tasks, and discusses the results that bear implications for further research and instructional decisions.

There are two points of rationale behind the introduction of the new skill. First of all, the skill encourages the students to take on a more independent learning approach, where they decide on the learning goal, consider all the assumptions, plan the steps toward the goal, and calculate the consequences that may arise from each step before taking the initiative to proceed on their own. Second, it is felt that with information flooding from all kinds of sources practically at the click of their fingers, they stand the risk of being overwhelmed, and worse, select any kind of information that they happen to find, regardless the quality and credibility. Thus, arguably today's Net generation should be armed with the ability to handle information glut from the Internet, and it is for this purpose why critical thinking needs to be promoted and fostered in the students' ways of reasoning.

The first section of the paper presents the definition of critical thinking, presenting its primary features, and several examples of instructional situation where it can be applied. The second section puts the new approach into the classroom context. It describes the instructional objective of the Business Correspondence class, and the steps in introducing the critical thinking to the stu-

dents. Generally speaking, the approach gets the students to determine their goal or problem, check several things that have been assumed, think of some acts to reach the goal and/or solve the problems, consider the consequences for every act, and weigh the advantages and disadvantages for every consequence. In addition, particular emphases are placed on critical selection of Internet resources and critical reading. This section ends with a brief discussion of their opinions about the new teaching approach. From the entire study, implications are drawn concerning potential areas to be explored further, some caveats, and a few suggestions for other scholars interested in this topic.

THE CONCEPTION OF CRITICAL THINKING

The idea of incorporating critical thinking into educational practices was initiated by Greek philosophers, reinforced after the World War II, and enhanced by Bloom in the 1950s with his *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. It gained currency particularly in the 1980s. So, as an idea, it has stood the test of time and yet there is still a perceived need to strengthen the critical thinking skills in schools and colleges. Quite possibly, the common practices of simply transferring knowledge from textbooks and teachers to the students still prevail, as opposed to a growing intention to make students think more independently and learn for themselves beyond the boundaries of prescribed teaching and books. The latter concern was voiced in a Tbilisi Declaration over three decades ago, whereby it stated that the ultimate goal of education is to teach them critical thinking which will enable students to deal with social and environmental issues (Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education, 1978).

S/PT/i

P/SP/H.

DEFINITIONS OF CRITICAL THINKING

Before delving into the issue further, it is best to be clear about what critical thinking really is. Ennis (1987, p. 10) defined it as "reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do." Years later, there was even a greater concern to focus on the process of critical thinking. Elder and Paul (2001), following a convention of several researchers in an effort to see the components of critical thinking (Facione, 1990), maintain that the following skills make up critical thinking, namely: (1) Interpretation: the ability to comprehend information; (2) Analysis: the ability to identify the main arguments presented; (3) Evaluation: the ability to judge whether this argument is

Q/SP/i

P/PT/i

credible and valid based on the logic and evidence given; (4) Inference: the ability to decide what to believe or do based on solid logic, and to understand the consequences of this decision; (5) Explanation: the ability to communicate the process of reasoning to others; and (6) Self-Regulation: the ability to monitor one's own thinking and correct flaws in logic.

Kurland (2000) adds open-mindedness as another important dimension of critical thinking. Being open minded requires that a critical thinker adopt the following characteristics, as to: (1) evaluate all reasonable inferences; (2) consider a variety of possible viewpoints or perspectives; (3) remain open to alternative interpretations; (4) accept a new explanation, model, or paradigm because it explains the evidence better, is simpler, or has fewer inconsistencies or covers more data; and (5) accept new priorities in response to a reevaluation of the evidence or reassessment of our real interests.

P/Pt/i

Hofreiter (2005) maintains that there are four basic principles to follow when teaching critical thinking skills. First is that critical thinking should be taught explicitly; second is the need for a model by the instructor; third is the use of real-world examples to put the teaching in context, and the last is starting with students' initial beliefs and opinions before moving on to logic-based reasoning.

P/Pt/i

METHOD

As stated at the beginning, the main objective of this paper is to report the effectiveness of an instruction of critical thinking in a content class. Using a one-group quasi experimental design, a class of juniors (third-year students) consisting of 8 students at the English Letters Study Program taking Business Correspondence was taken as the subject of this exploratory study. The critical thinking instruction was designed primarily to train the students to be independent in their learning. It trained them to engage in the main features of critical thinking when they went about their learning tasks, which in the long run would enable them to adopt a more or less independent learning. More specifically, it trained them to adopt the following sequential skills: setting objectives, identifying assumptions, checking the validity of the assumptions, determining several alternatives to attain the objectives, weighing the consequences for each alternative, and choosing particular ways to attain the objectives.

Because the students were engaged in an independent learning, in which they searched and found for themselves the learning materials, they were also

REPLACING

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LEARNER AUTONOMY AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY OF INDONESIAN EFL COLLEGE LEARNERS

I Putu Ngurah Wage Myartawan
(wmyartawan@gmail.com)

Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha
Jl. A. Yani No. 67, Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia

Mohammad Adnan Latief
(adnanlatiefs@yahoo.com)

Suharmanto
(sinyorb@gmail.com)

Universitas Negeri Malang
Jl. Semarang No. 5, Malang, Indonesia

Abstract: The present study aimed to investigate the correlation between learner autonomy psychologically defined in the study as a composite of behavioral intentions to do autonomous learning and self-efficacy in relation to autonomous learning, and English proficiency. The sample comprised 120 first semester English-majored students of a state university in Bali, Indonesia. The data were collected from documents and by administering two questionnaires. Multiple linear regression analysis conducted revealed that learner autonomy and English proficiency as defined in the study had a significant, strong, positive relationship. Some suggestions related to the results of the study, especially in the EFL context, are discussed.

Keywords: learner autonomy, English proficiency, behavioral intentions to do autonomous learning, self-efficacy related to autonomous learning

S/PP/i

There has seemingly been a shared agreement among scholars (Benson, 2001; Derrick & Carr, 2003; Scharle & Szabó, 2000; Suharmanto, 2003) that the capacity to do autonomous learning is a characteristic demanded of most learners in today's globalized world. Learner autonomy has been increasingly seen as important, so that it is considered as an educational goal of today (Benson & Huang, 2008; cf. Ponton & Hall, 2003) especially in higher education (Crome et al., 2011), including that in the Indonesian education context as obviously apparent in the principle of life-long learning in the development of the school-based curriculum in the country's education system (Dirjen Peningkatan Mutu Pendidikan dan Tenaga Kependidikan, 2008).

U/PP/N

P/PT/N

In the field of language teaching, especially that in Europe, autonomy has long become a major concern. As discussed in Benson (2001), Benson (2006), and Benson & Huang (2008), the emergence of this concern was initiated by the Council of Europe through some projects intended to develop innovations in adult language teaching and learning. Developing learner autonomy at the time was manifested in the conception of self-directed learning, the realization of which was learning through self-access language centers and learner training based in *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL), a unit established by the Council of Europe. Since then there has been a growing interest in learner autonomy, mostly due to the universal acknowledgement that success in foreign language acquisition is determined by the extent to which students achieve and exercise autonomy in relation to their learning (Benson & Huang, 2008).

S/SP/i

Holec (1981, p. 3), a central figure in CRAPEL, defined learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". His definition centers on two key concepts: *ability* and *to take charge of one's own learning*. Ability according to him is "a power or capacity to do something and not a type of conduct, behaviour" (p. 3). To take charge of one's own learning, on the other hand is "to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning", which include setting the objectives of learning, determining the contents and progression, selecting the methods of learning, monitoring the learning progress, and evaluating the product of learning (Benson, 1981, p. 3)—which, by Lewis & Vialleton (2011, p. 206), are referred to as a list of *learning management tasks* (see also Benson, 2001, p. 49).

Q/SP/N-1

Q/PT/I

Interestingly, as spelled out by Holec (1981, p. 4), "a learner may have the ability to take charge of his learning without necessarily utilizing this ability to the full when he decides to learn". An autonomous learner may learn with or

Q/PT/I

without teacher's help, with or without using teaching aids, or, in Little's (2009, p. 223) words, "autonomous learners always do things for themselves, but they may or may not do things on their own".

Q/PT/I

In line with the historical development of learner autonomy in the foreign language teaching context, Benson & Huang (2008, p. 424) noted that there has been a shift of view on learner autonomy. They mentioned that in its early development, learner autonomy was more associated with both learning situations and learners' capacity to take charge of their learning, but firmly agreed that recently the view of autonomy as a capacity to take charge of one's own learning tends to be much favored as apparent in the following quote.

In early work in the field of foreign language education, learner autonomy referred both to situations in which learning proceeds independently of teachers or specially prepared teaching materials (Dickinson, 1987) and to learners' capacity to take charge of their own learning (Holec, 1981). There has been a tendency in more recent work, however, to reserve the term 'learner autonomy' for the capacity to take charge of one's learning, while the terms 'self-directed' or 'independent' learning tend to be used for situations in which this capacity is put to use (p. 424).

Q/PT/H-I

Benson (2001, p. 49), however, argued that even though Holec's (1981) definition has sufficiently covered the main aspects of learning processes expected of an autonomous learner, the definition is problematic in the sense that the self-management tasks in the definition are mainly described in technical terms, lacking an important account on the nature of cognitive, psychological, mechanism that underlies effective self-management of learning (see also Little, 2007a, p. 16).

Q/SP/H-I

In response to Holec's (1981) definition, Benson (2001) mentioned that learner autonomy is a multi-dimensional construct (2001; cf. Murase, 2007), and, furthermore, contended that a sufficient account of learner autonomy in language learning should include three levels of control over learning: control over learning management, control over cognitive processes, and control over learning content which are interrelated with each other. He prefers to use the term 'control' rather than 'charge' such as that used by Holec (1981), arguing that 'control' is more operational than 'charge'.

P/SP/I

Under Benson's (2001) conception of learner autonomy, control over learning management is referred to as learners' observable behaviors to plan, organize, and evaluate their learning. While control over the cognitive

P/PT/I

processes is more in terms of psychology of learning, control over the learning content has both the situational aspect and social aspect of learning. Control over the cognitive processes is more related to attention, reflection, and metacognitive knowledge rather than observable learning behaviors. The situational aspect of control over the learning content refers to the learners' freedom to determine their own goals and purposes of learning, while the social aspect may relate to learning situations and learners' ability to interact with others in the course of their learning.

Benson (2001; 2006) mentioned that the recent definition of learner autonomy also increasingly involves psychological aspects of autonomy, which he claimed Holec (1981) failed to address in his definition. The necessity of seeing the learner autonomy from the psychological perspective is, as Long (1998) asserted, due to the argument that the psychological account of learner autonomy was important and adequate to be used as the basis to explain self-directed learning which is now more frequently referred to as autonomous learning or independent learning. Departing from this, the present research focuses on learner autonomy as a psychological enterprise.

Psychologically, learner autonomy is often referred to in terms of learners' personal attributes and characteristics (Derrick & Carr, 2003). From this respect, they defined learner autonomy as characteristics reflected by individuals who show agency or intentional behavior with regard to their learning efforts. In terms of learner characteristics, they referred to Confessore's (1992) conception of personality characteristics associated with autonomous learning which includes desire, resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence.

Desire is defined as the extent to which a person can show intentionality in general, not specifically related to the context of autonomous learning; it reflects an adult's capacity to make use of influence (freedom, power, and change) over his/her life (Meyer, 2001). Resourcefulness is identified as a learner's intention to be resourceful (Carr, 1999). It is associated with the characteristics of the learner to anticipate future rewards of learning, prioritize learning over non-learning activities despite other goals and obstacles, postpone immediate gratification (fun or reward) of doing other activities, and solve problems in learning.

Initiative refers to behavioral intentions of a learner to create goals and work toward the attainment of the goals, to quickly translate the intention to learn into actual learning activities, to continuously pursue learning regardless

P/SP/i

P/SP/i

P/PT/N-1

P/PT/i

P/PT/N-1

P/PT/N-1

P/PT/N-1

of obstacles, to actively develop solutions to overcome obstacles without necessarily waiting someone to develop solutions for him/her, and to self-start learning activities and their related processes such as setting goals and planning (Ponton, 1999).

Persistence is conceptualized as behavioral intentions of a learner to sustain or maintain their volition, self-regulation, and goal-directedness; volition reflects the motivation to sustain the intended behaviors (goals) while self-regulation is maintaining activities by regulating activities that fit with one's integrated self, mainly done through self-reflection; goal directedness, finally, refers to being perseverant toward goal attainment (Derrick, 2002).

A recent explanation of learner autonomy as seen from these four dimensions is given by Confessore and Park (2004) who operationally defined learner autonomy in conative and preconative terms. Referring to Fishbein & Ajzen's (1975) behavioral model which mentions that behaviors are a function of beliefs (cognitive entity)/attitudes (affective entity) and intentions (conative entity), Confessore & Park (2004) made clear their conception of learner autonomy as a conative-preconative entity. Based on this model, Confessore & Park (2004) viewed that resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence exist within intentional dimension, while desire is seen as the precursor to behavioral intentions, thus implying that it exists as cognitive/affective entity. Departing from Fishbein & Ajzen's (1975) model, Confessore & Park (2004) asserted that intentions are derived from the constant interaction between belief and attitude. Intentions, when they are strong enough, lead to and explain behaviors. On the opposite direction, experiences can influence beliefs and attitudes, which, in turn, may change intentions, which, then, may lead to changes in the following behaviors.

Confessore and Park (2004) have developed Learner Autonomy Profile Version 3.0 (LAP) based on the work of Meyer (2001), Carr (2001), Derrick (2001), and Ponton (1999), who respectively developed instruments to assess learner desire, resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence, each of which is the component of the four constructs of learner autonomy based on the Confessore Model (see also Derrick et al., 2007). However, according to Ponton et al. (2004), Meyer's construct of desire only measures the desire to learn in general terms. Through path analyses, they found that it "does not accurately measure one's motivation to engage in autonomous learning" (p. 66), and therefore, cannot "accurately reflect one's intention to engage in autonomous learning" (p. 66). Drawing on the previous work that has revealed that self-efficacy has a

P/PT/HI

P/PT/I

P/PI

P/SP/I

P/SP/I

P/SP/I

P/SP/I

P/PT/I

Q/SP/H-1

mediating role between the expectancies toward goals and outcomes and the motivation to engage in particular behaviors (Bandura, 1997). Ponton et al. highlighted the importance of self-efficacy in understanding learner autonomy.

P/PT/H-1

Self-efficacy determines whether or not a particular performance will be strived for, the amount of effort that a person will attempt to do for the sake of that performance, and how consistently the performance will be maintained when obstacles are faced (Bandura, 1986). Operationally, self-efficacy is defined as one's belief in his/her requisite capacity to successfully do autonomous learning in the presence of three kinds of impediments to learning, including cognitive (self-inefficacy), situational (temporary), and structural (inadequate resources) barriers (Bandura, 1997). Seen from Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) behavioral model, self-efficacy exists in the pre-conative dimension similar to desire in the Consequence Model (Ponton et al., 2010, p. 55).

P/PT/H-1

P/PT/H-1

P/PT/i

From Ponton et al.'s (2010) study, it was confirmed that self-efficacy as measured by Appraisal of Learner Autonomy (ALA) was slightly better than desire measured by the instrument developed by Meyer (2001) in predicting the three conative factors of autonomous learning (resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence). Therefore, it was self-efficacy instead of desire which was considered as one of the characteristics of autonomous learners investigated in the current study.

P/PT/i

Deriving from Little (2007b, p. 2) and Little (2003, p. 1), there are three important reasons why autonomy plays an important role in students' learning. First, being one of the three basic human's needs (Deci, 1995), learner autonomy solves the problem of learner motivation because an autonomous learner is intrinsically motivated to meet his/her need of learning (Little, 2007b). Second, being motivated and reflective learners, the learning of these autonomous learners will become effective and efficient, so it is very likely that they will succeed, depending on the degree of their autonomy (Little, 2007b). The third reason is particularly related to second/foreign language learning. It is well accepted that any EFL/ESL program intends to help learners optimally gain high communicative competence. Since effective communication depends on a complex set of procedural skills that develop only through use, it is likely that language classroom is not able to develop all the skills the students need for effective communication to the full range. Therefore, learners who enjoy a high degree of autonomy (especially, social autonomy) in their learning envi-

S/PT/i

P/PT/i

P/PT/H

ronment would have more opportunities to develop their communicative ability as compared to those who do not (cf. Scharle & Szabó, 2000).

Given the three advantages of learner autonomy above, it now seems clear why learner autonomy is often associated as effective learning, and why it is generally believed that learners with a higher degree of autonomy are more likely to succeed in their learning, especially in learning a second/foreign language, than those who are less or not autonomous. It is for the sake of testing the theoretical hypothesis that autonomy in language learning and better language learning are closely related and equivalent to each other (Benson, 2001) that the current study was conducted.

The research reported here investigated the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency, and language proficiency in this study was defined based on Hadley's (1993, p. 9) view on communicative competence. According to her, given the diversified goals of language programs/institutions, the ideally conceptualized communicative competence is better referred to in terms of language proficiency level. By this, language proficiency is expected to be different across language programs, depending on the goals of the programs. In line with Hadley's argument, English proficiency in the study is represented by the students' grade point averages (GPAs) related to English-related subjects they took in the semester in which the study was conducted. By referring to the goals of the courses of the English education program taken by the students in the university in which the study was conducted, the level of English proficiency developed was, in general, at the intermediate one.

To date, however, only a few researchers have studied the relationship between learner autonomy and language proficiency (Dafei, 2007), and among them are Dafei (2007), Hashemian & Soureshjani (2011), Lowe (2009), and Ng et al. (2011). Dafei (2007) conducted a study in China and found that the students' English proficiency was significantly and positively related to their autonomy, and there were no significant differences among the students' autonomy when their English proficiency was not significantly different. However, there were significant differences among the students' autonomy when their English proficiency was significantly different. Another study by Hashemian & Soureshjani (2011) in the English (L2) learning context in Iran investigated the interrelationship of autonomy, motivation, and academic performance. The bivariate correlation in the study also reported a significant correlation between learner autonomy and academic performance.

P/PT/H-I

P/PT/i

Q/SP/i

P/SP/i

P/SP/i

Lowe's (2009) study investigated the correlation between learner autonomy as measured by the Learner Autonomy Profile-Short Form (LAP-SF) constituting desire, resourcefulness, initiative, and persistence in learning and academic performance as measured by the GPA. The results of the study revealed that there was a positive, significant correlation between the LAP-SF total score and the total GPA, indicating a significant relationship between learner autonomy and academic performance.

P/SP/1

Another study aimed at investigating the extent to which scores on the LAP-SF predicted academic performance of the pre-diploma students of a university in Malaysia was carried out by Ng et al. (2011). The results showed a significant correlation between the two. Moreover, the Pearson product moment correlation analyses indicated that five components and one construct of the LAP-SF were revealed as statistically significant predictors of the semester GPA. Ten of the components scores, three constructs scores, and the LAP-SF total score were statistically significant predictors of the semester GPA in the English course, while three components scores and one construct score were seen to be statistically significant predictors of the semester GPA in the Mathematics course.

P/SP/1

In the Indonesian EFL setting, however, there have apparently been no deliberate attempts by Indonesian scholars to research the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency. If any, the research mainly focused on the development of learner autonomy through the use of learning strategy training (Susilowati, 2010) or on Indonesian students' belief and their development of belief about EFL learning (Wijirahayu, 2000), which is very important for increasing students' metacognitive skills—an important aspect of learner autonomy, or on the characteristics of autonomous learners (whether they exist or not) in the Indonesian EFL context (Lamb, 2004). Therefore, a study on the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency in the Indonesian EFL setting is becoming a pressing need. Given this motive and considering Dafci (2007) who articulated the need for studying the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency not only in China but also throughout the world, the current study explored the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency of the first semester students of a university in Bali, Indonesia. The research question of the present study was formulated as: "Is the higher the students' learner autonomy, the higher their English proficiency is?"

P/SP/H-1

P/SP/H-1

P/PT/4-1

P/SP/1

Besides the previously mentioned reasons, the present research is worth doing because, as stated by Benson (2001), the literature on learner autonomy, especially that on the relationship between learner autonomy and language proficiency, still lacks empirical support. Additionally, the results of the study can also serve as an additional validation for practices aimed at fostering learner autonomy, especially in the Indonesian EFL setting, and contribute to the issue that learner autonomy could be potentially used as a better predictor of academic performance (Lowe, 2009; Ng et al., 2011).

P/PT/i

5/P/11-1

METHOD

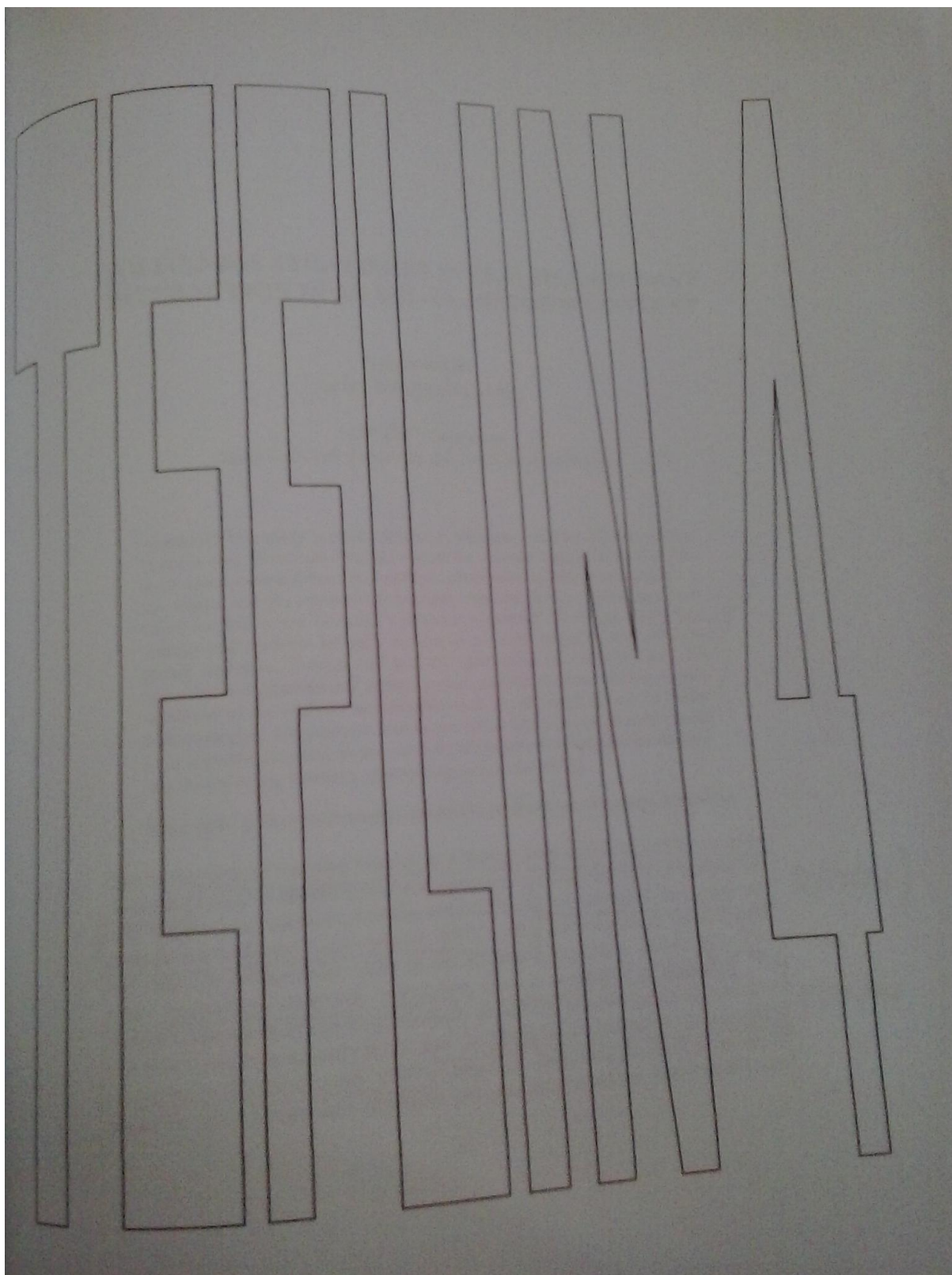
The study investigated learner autonomy and English proficiency from a single group of students and the characteristics under investigation had been possessed by the students. Therefore, based on Ary et al. (2010) and Latief (2010), the present study employed correlational research as its design.

A sample of 120 students were selected by using a proportionate sampling technique from a population of 171 first semester students of the English Education Department, Ganesha University of Education (Undiksha), Indonesia. All the 120 students in the sample were Balinese. Out of the 120 students in the sample, 79 were females and 41 males. Their ages ranged from 17 to 21 (sd = .63), and the average age was 18. In terms of GPA, about 24.2% of the sample had GPAs of the A level (85-100), 65% of the sample at the B level (70-84), and only 10.8% at the C level (55-69) (see Table 1).

Table 1 Composition of the Sample with Regard to GPA

GPA	F	%
A (85-100)	29	24.2
B (70-84)	78	65.0
C (55-69)	13	10.8
Total	120	100.0

Data were gathered from available documents and by administering two questionnaires. The documents provided the data of the students' GPAs in English proficiency subjects, including Intensive English Course (10 credits), Listening I (2 credits), and Speaking I (2 credits). The first questionnaire, Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ), was used to measure the students' behavioral intentions to do autonomous learning. LAQ was developed by Macaskill & Taylor (2010) based on the theories of autonomous learning by



POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION IN AN EFL CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Senowarsito
(seno_ikip@yahoo.com)

IKIP PGRI Semarang
Jalan Sidodadi Timur No. 24, Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract: This study explores politeness strategies used by teacher and students in two 90-minute English lessons in a senior high school. The data were video-recorded from two different classroom settings where English is the object and the medium of teaching learning process. The analysis is based on Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies. The result shows that teacher and students basically employed positive, negative, and bald on-record strategies. Teacher and students' perception on social distance, the age difference, institutional setting, power, and the limitation of the linguistic ability of the students has contributed to the different choices of politeness strategies. The students tend to use some interpersonal function markers. Linguistic expressions that are used in classroom interaction are addressing, encouraging, thanking, apologizing, and leave-taking.

Keywords: politeness strategies, pragmatic perspectives, classroom interaction

One of the aims of learning English as a foreign language is to be able to communicate. Learners should have communicative competence that comprises not only linguistic competence, but also socio-cultural, interactional, formulaic and strategic competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 45). Socio-cultural, interactional, and strategic competences refer to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge. This paper approaches classroom interaction from a pragmatic perspective. The pragmatic perspective can be particularly defined as knowledge of communicative action and how to carry it out, and the ability to use language appropriately according to context (Kasper, 1997). Language classroom can be seen as socio-linguistic environment and discourse communities in which interlocutors use

Q/PT/NI

P/PT/NI

various functions of language to establish a communication system, and the teacher-student interaction is believed to contribute on students' language development (Consolo, 2006, p. 34).

This study focuses on politeness strategies in teacher-student interaction in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom context. Learning a foreign language involves not only knowing how to speak and write, but also how to behave linguistically. Therefore, the teacher-student interaction in class is influenced by their pragmatic knowledge, how to behave and respond in different situations and contexts.

Pragmatic competence is defined as the ability to communicate effectively and involves knowledge beyond the level of grammar. Bardovi-Harlig (cited by Grossi, 2009, p. 53) argues that the classroom is a place where pragmatic instruction can occur. In order to be successful in communication, it is essential for second language learners to know not just grammar and text organization but also pragmatic aspects of the target language (Bachman, 1990). Pragmatic knowledge has a close relationship with knowledge of socio-cultural values and beliefs.

Classroom instructions with awareness in pragmatic aspects of social interaction can be very useful for learners. It can be challenging to find useful teaching materials and to integrate pragmatics into an existing syllabus. The challenge for foreign language teaching is how to arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence in foreign language (Kasper, 1997).

The knowledge of politeness is important in classroom teaching of a foreign language. Moreover politeness can have an instrumental role in the social interaction. Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory places politeness as a universal face-threatening strategy. Politeness strategies used by teacher and students in the class can play an important role in learning and teaching process. This study aims at describing politeness strategies used by teacher and students in two 90-minute English lessons in senior high school in natural contexts. The following briefly discuss the concepts of politeness and politeness strategies relevant to the study.

POLITENESS

The basic concept adopted in this paper is politeness developed by Brown & Levinson (1987). They assume that each participant is endowed with what

Q/PT/H-I

Q/PT/I

P/PT/H-I

P/PT/H-I

P/PT/I

P/PT/I

they call face, which is developed into negative face and positive face. One's negative face includes claims to territories, to freedom of action and freedom from imposition. One's positive face involves the needs for social approval, or the want to be considered desirable by at least some others. It is based on the presumption that, as part of a strategy for maintaining their own face, the mutual interest of participants in a conversation is to maintain their face from others.

Speech act can be categorized as polite if the speech: (a) does not contain any speakers' coercion or vanity, (b) gives the option to the speaker to do something, (c) provides comfort and is friendly to the hearer (Lakoff, 1990 cited in Jumanto, 2008, pp. 44-45). Furthermore, Lakoff explains that cultural differences will provide a different emphasis on each rule. Culture will affect the strategy on (1) social distance characterized by impersonality, (2) deference characterized by respect and (3) camaraderie characterized by assertiveness.

Brown and Levinson (1987) found that politeness expressed differently among languages. Politeness is based on intimacy, closeness, and relationships, as well as the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. They distinguish politeness strategies into two: positive politeness strategy used to show intimacy, closeness, and relationships, and negative politeness strategies are used to show the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. Leech (in Jumanto, 2008, pp. 44-45) proposes politeness maxims that basically involve the strategy of keeping the face in the interaction, by maximizing the positive things to others and minimize the positive things in yourself, which are generally based on four notions: cost and benefit, dispraise and praise, disagreement and agreement, and sympathy and antipathy.

Gu (1990) puts forward the concept of Chinese politeness, which emphasizes the notion of face. Face in the context of China is not considered as psychological desire, but as societal norms. Individual behavior must conform to the expectations of society on respect, modesty, and warm and sincere attitude. Ide (1989) shows that politeness is the basis for maintaining and improving communication. According to Ide (1989), politeness is based on status and social level, power and structures of kinship, and situation (formal or informal). Blum-Kulka (1992) proposes the theory of politeness that is based on cultural norms and cultural scripts, and considers that the concept of desire (face wants) is tied to a particular culture. Politeness is influenced by P

Q/P/I

P/Q/I

Q/P/I

P/P/I

P/P/I

P/P/I

P/P/I

(power), D (distance), and R (relationship), and also affected by speech events. Meanwhile, Arndt and Janney (1985) propose the theory of politeness on the basis of merit. Politeness is the use of the right word or phrase in the proper context, which is determined by the rules that are prevalent in society. Watts (2003) states that politeness is determined by the relationship between behavior and suitability convention, not by specific linguistic forms. Thomas (1995) introduced the Pollyanna principle that requires a person to use the best way to say something, and talk about things that are fun.

P/P/I

P/P/I

P/P/I

It can be summarized that politeness is the use of an appropriate word or phrase in the appropriate context, which is determined by the rules that are prevalent in society. In social interaction, to maintain politeness is to maintain harmonious and smooth social interaction, and avoid the use of speech acts that are potentially face-threatening or damaging. The principle is based on the use of politeness intimacy, closeness, and relationships, as well as the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. People choose and implement certain values in certain pragmatic scale, according to the culture and conditions of the existing situation in social interaction.

POLITENESS STRATEGIES

The concept of politeness strategies developed by Brown and Levinson (1987) is adapted from the notion of "face" introduced by a sociologist named Erving Goffman. Face is a picture of self-image in the social attributes. In other words, the face could mean honor, self-esteem, and public self-image.

P/SP/I

According to Goffman (1955), each participant has two needs in every social process: namely the need to be appreciated and need to be free (not bothered).

P/P/I

The first need is called positive face, while the latter is negative face. Face Threatening Act (FTA) intensity is expressed by weight (W), which includes three social parameters – first, the degree of disturbance or rate of imposition (R), in terms of absolute weight of a particular action in a particular culture. For example, the request "May I borrow your car?" has different weights from the request "May I borrow your pen?" The second and third social parameters include the social distance (D) between the speaker and the hearer, and authority or power (P) owned by interlocutors (Renkema, 1993, p. 14). FTA threatens the stability of the intensity of communication; politeness in this case

Q/P/I/N-I

can be understood as an effort to prevent and or repair damage(s) caused by the FTA. The greater the threat to stability, the more politeness, face work technique, is necessary. Face work which aims at positive face is called 'solidarity politeness', while face work that deals with negative face is known as 'respect politeness' (Renkema 1993, p. 13). In connection with this strategy, Brown and Levinson (1978) show that there are five ways to avoid the FTA. The five strategies are sorted by degree of risk 'losing face': the higher the risk of losing face, the less likely the speaker did FTA. In this case, Renkema (1993, p. 15) gives an example of this strategy.

- a. Hey, lend me a hundred dollars. (Baldly)
- b. Hey, friend, could you lend me a hundred bucks? (Positive politeness)
- c. I'm sorry I have to ask, but could you lend me a hundred dollars? (Negative politeness)
- d. Oh no, I'm out of cash! I forgot to go to the bank today. (Off the record)

Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) classifies five strategies: (a) to follow what it says, bald on record, (b) perform speech acts using positive politeness (refers to the positive face), (c) perform speech acts using negative politeness (refers to the face of a negative), (d) indirect speech act (off the record), and (e) do not do speech act or say anything (do not do the FTA). In connection with this politeness strategy, here are the possible strategies for doing FTAs.

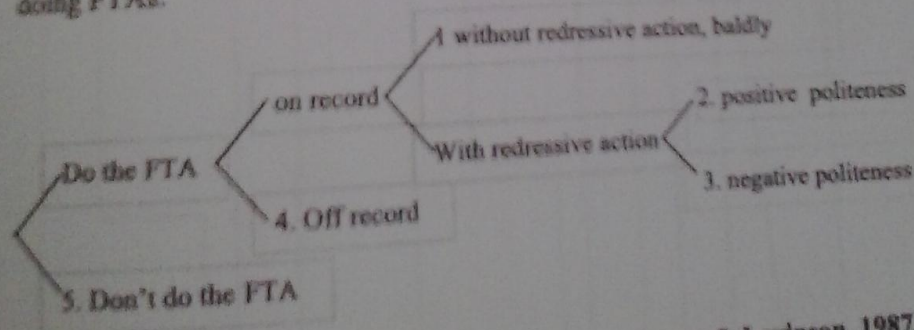
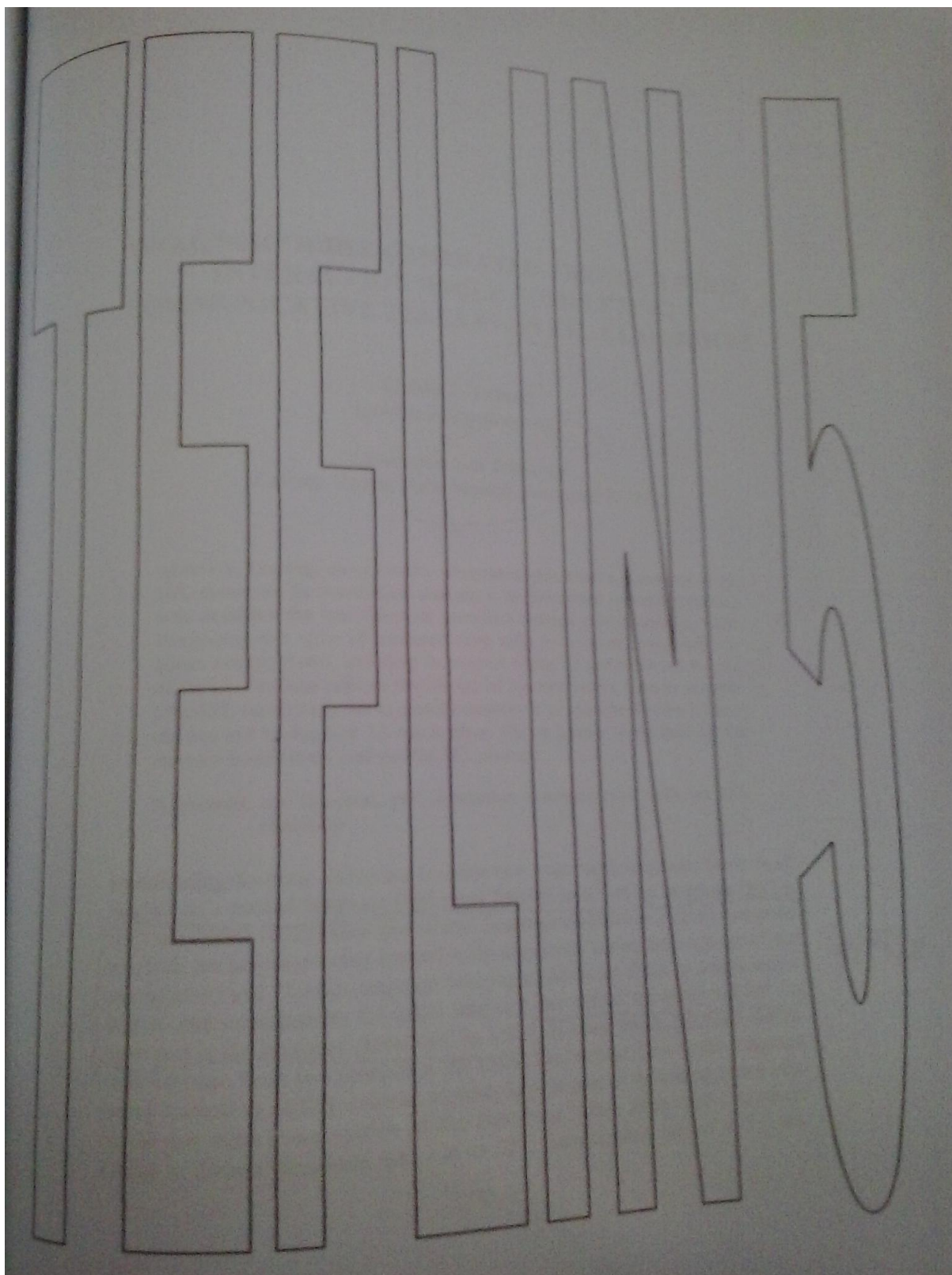


Figure 1. Possible Strategies For Doing FTAs (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69)



ORAL DISCOURSE GENERATED THROUGH PEER-INTERACTION WHILE COMPLETING COMMUNICATIVE TASKS IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

Golda J. Tulung
(goldajuliet@yahoo.com)

Universitas Sam Ratulangi
Kampus Unsrat, Bahu Manado, Indonesia 95115

Abstract: Drawing on qualitative observation data from a case study of an EFL classroom for pre-medical students in an Indonesian university, this article examines the oral discourse generated through peer interaction while completing two types of communicative tasks in terms of how much language was generated, including the amount of the L2 generated and the use of the L1. Findings indicate that the use of communicative tasks in this specific EFL context appears to provide students with opportunities for L2 production and to diminish L1 use in class. This is largely determined by the communicative tasks used and the EFL context.

Keywords: oral discourse, peer interaction, communicative tasks, an EFL classroom

Highlighting the main difference between two major sociolinguistic contexts of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL), Hall and Walsh (2002) state that second language classrooms include "contexts in which the language being learned in the classroom is also the language of the community" and "foreign language learning contexts are those in which exposure to and opportunities for target language interaction are restricted for the most part to the language classroom" (p. 186). In other words, the main difference between these two contexts is the access the learners have to the language being learned: in an ESL context, students have access to the language not only inside but even more outside of the classroom, often from native speakers (NSs) in diverse situations; while in an EFL context, their access to the lan-

Q/PT/i

guage outside of the classroom is very limited, though they may have access to the internet and English TV programs.

Obviously, one of the problems in learning a foreign language, particularly English as a foreign language (EFL), has always been providing quality linguistic input to learners. In such contexts, learners get exposure to the L2 primarily in the language classroom. One possibility of providing input and interaction opportunities to students is through communicative task-based instruction. In task-based instruction, learners use the language to transact tasks rather than primarily learning individual language items (Foster, 1999). As students transact tasks, they are engaging in activities which focus on meaning and require both comprehension and production of the language, activities which have been shown to promote their language learning. Skehan (1998, p. 95), in a synthesis of the essential characteristics from other definitions, defines task as an activity in which:

- meaning is primary;
- there is some communication problem to solve;
- there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities;
- task completion has some priority;
- the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome

Most of the research on interaction during communicative tasks has taken place in ESL classrooms with students representing diverse first languages where English is necessarily the language of communication. Furthermore, much of it has been carried out in well-controlled experimental settings, focusing on learners and particularly on the language they produce (see Mackey, 2007). However, there is relatively little research to date that focuses on the use of communicative tasks in actual working classrooms in an EFL setting and on student discourse (Hasan, 2006).

When students share the same first language (L1), like in most cases of the EFL settings, there is the issue of using the L1 in their talk. In a study on the L2 composing process, Wang and Wen (2002) found that EFL Chinese learners, when asked to compose aloud on two tasks, had both their L1 and L2 at their disposal. Tarone and Swain (1995) put forward the case of immersion students who avoid using the L2 in the classroom as they move into higher primary grade levels, particularly when conversing with one another. Furthermore, Carless (2004) and Carless and Gordon (1997) report some concerns from the teachers in Hong Kong while implementing task-based language

P/PT/H-1

Q/PT/1

P/PT/H-1

P/PT/H-1

P/SP/1

P/PT/i

S/PT/i

teaching about the learners' use of the L1 rather than the L2. Storch and Alderson (2010) report on students' use of L1 mainly for the purpose of task management and vocabulary facilitation and De la Colina and Mayo (2009) indicate the importance of L1 as a learning tool.

This article is based on a detailed qualitative case study (Tulung, 2008) of peer interaction and non-native teacher talk in an EFL classroom during the implementation of communicative tasks with Indonesian pre-medical students. It turned out that the tasks worked effectively well in this setting. However, this article focuses only on the oral discourse generated through peer interaction while completing the tasks, particularly from the perspective of how much language was generated during peer interaction. This includes the amount of language generated and the use of L1 during peer interaction.

METHOD

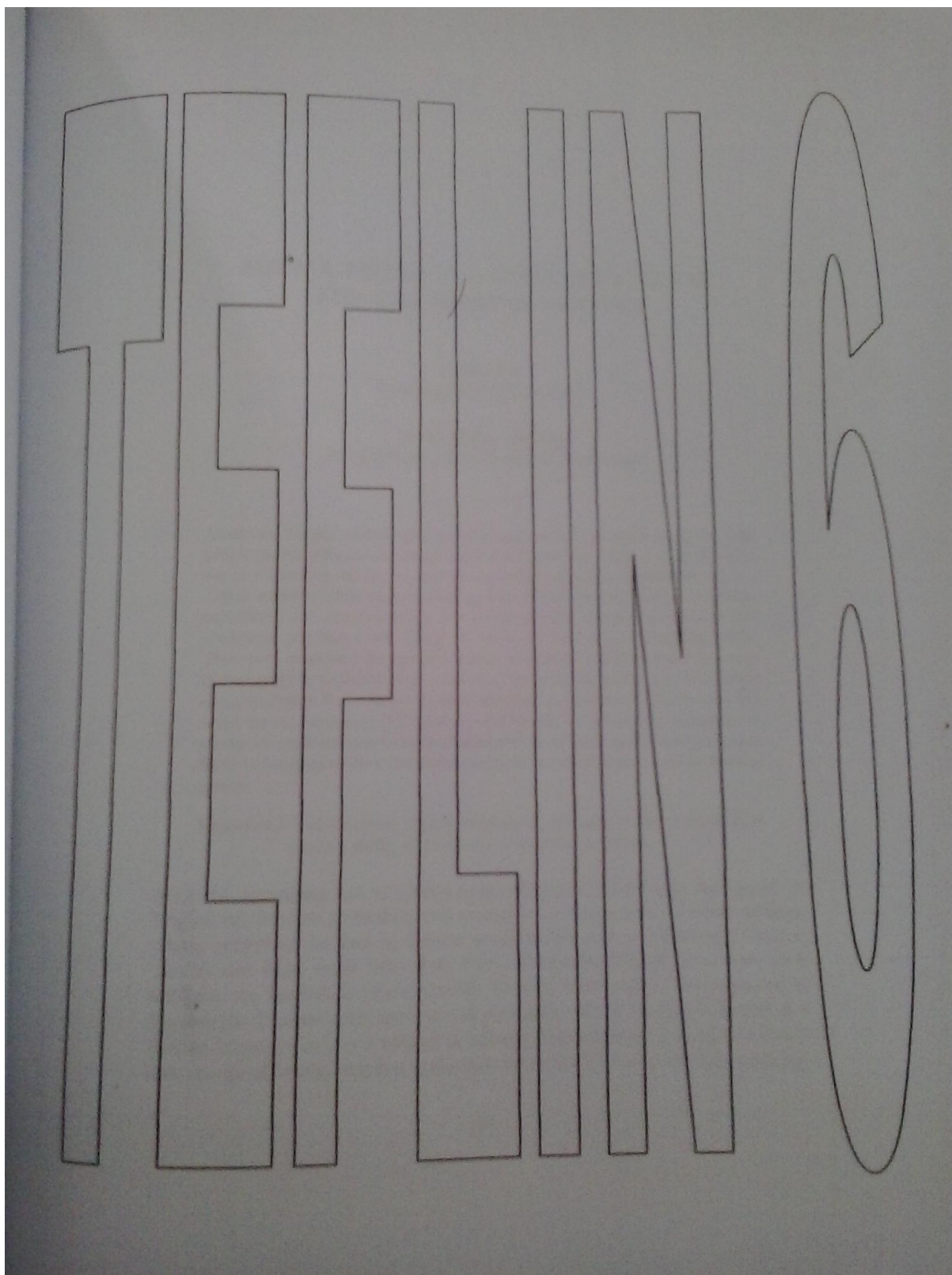
The study involved one course section with a teacher and 27 students, and covered both the sessions when they worked on selected communicative tasks and the regular whole-group sessions. All the students in this class were categorized as having an "intermediate" English proficiency level based on the placement test. In addition, they had passed the Academic Reading course taken in the previous semester. Their ages ranged from 18 to 20 years and most of them were in their first year of study at the Faculty of Medicine. Among the 27 students, only eight were studied in depth since they were the ones who participated in all four tasks (in two or three groups with rotating members).

In this study, the students were working on two types of communicative tasks, jigsaw and decision-making, adapted from their textbook and designed specifically to employ reading materials as well as peer interaction. These four tasks (two of each type), using reading texts as a basis for oral discourse generation, provided students with vocabulary used in different medical contexts as well as stimulated and enriched their conversational discourse. The students, working in small groups, were encouraged to talk about the topics in the texts, and needed to work together with others to solve problems and to get their meaning across through interactive discourse. In other words, the task design elicited interactive language and involved reading. In the jigsaw tasks, the students were provided with notes regarding information about different patients. Each had to share the information s/he had in order to complete the task, which was to fill in the patients' information table. In the decision-making tasks, the

P/Pr/i

P/Pr/i

P/Pr/i



SOCIAL MEDIA IN A CONTENT COURSE FOR THE DIGITAL NATIVES

Anita Lie
(anitalie2003@gmail.com)

Unika Widya Mandala
Jalan Dinoyo 42-44 Surabaya, Indonesia

Abstract: Digital technologies and the Internet have revolutionized the way people gather information and acquire new knowledge. With a click of a button or a touch on the screen, any person who is wired to the internet can access a wealth of information, ranging from books, poems, articles, graphics, animations and so much more. It is imperative that educational systems and classroom practices must change to serve our 21st century students better. This study examines the use of Edmodo as a social media to teach a course in Pedagogy to a class of digital natives. The media is used as an out-of-class communication forum to post/submit assignments and resources, discuss relevant issues, exchange information, and handle housekeeping purposes. A survey of students' responses and discussions on their participatory process leads to insights on how the social media helps achieve the required competences.

Keywords: digital natives, digital immigrants, Edmodo, content course, 21st century skills, achievement of learning outcomes

With the expanding use of global communication technology, the spread of English has become faster than ever among the young people. In urban settings, young people are hooked on various social media such as Facebook, Twitter, Tumblr and learn more from YouTube, Wikipedia, Google than from their teachers. As English is predominantly used in those media, the exposure to English has become more intense and pervasive. While English is taught as a foreign language and as a subject in schools, this language is used as a dominant means of communication in the virtual circles. Although the forms of Eng-

lish used in this context may not conform to the standards of 'proper' grammar and its use is still mixed with the local language or the national language, English has shifted to be a LWC among young people who have access to the internet. They utter or write chunks of English, taken from phrases in their favorite songs, books or movies.

As the New London Group (1996) envisages designing social futures, a pedagogy of multiliteracies should focus on modes of representation much broader than language alone. In a multimedia environment where particularly our young people function, the audio-visual mode of representation may be much more powerful and closely related to language than "mere literacy" would ever be able to allow. "Multiliteracies also creates a different kind of pedagogy, one in which language and other modes of meaning are dynamic representational resources, constantly being remade by their users as they work to achieve their various cultural purposes."

P/PT/i

This paper examines the use of Edmodo as a social media to teach a course in Pedagogy to a class of digital natives. The media is used as an out-of-class communication forum to post/submit assignments and resources, discuss relevant issues, exchange information, and handle housekeeping purposes. The decision to use Edmodo was based on the need to break through the digital divide between the teacher and students and to connect with students beyond class time in digital-natives-friendly ways. The tool has proven to be mutually beneficial for both the teacher and students to help achieve the course objectives.

As Thomas Friedman vividly described in *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century*, the 21st century is shaking and challenging the very foundations of our society in such monumental ways that the roles of learning and schooling should change accordingly. Students need to be prepared to work in newly emerging fields that require problem solving and critical thinking skills as well as digital literacy skills. It is imperative that educational systems and classroom practices must change to serve our 21st century students better. Schools are compelled to find more effective ways to teach and prepare the young people to survive and thrive in the 21st century knowledge economy.

Promoting the infusion of 21st century skills into education, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills has designed a framework that includes the following:

1. Core Subjects and 21st Century Themes

2. Learning and Innovation Skills
3. Information, Media, and Technology Skills
4. Life and Career Skills

Along the same line, the (American) National Educational Technology Standards for Students (NETS-S) in 2007 were 1) Creativity and Innovation, 2) Critical Thinking, Problem Solving, and Information Literacy, 4) ship, 6) Tech Operations/Concepts, and Decision Making, 5) Digital Citizen. (NETS-T) were 1) Facilitate and Inspire Student Learning and Creativity, 2) Design Digital-Age Learning Experiences and Assessments, 3) Model Digital-Age Work and Learning, 4) Promote Digital Citizenship and Responsibility, 5) Engage in Professional Growth and Leadership (Schrum & Levin, 2009).

P/SP/H-I

Sharing the Learning spaces during this era are digital natives and digital immigrants. The terms "digital immigrants" and "digital natives" were popularized and elaborated upon by Dr. Mark Prensky (2001). Prensky defines digital natives as those who were born between 1980 and 2000 and growing up surrounded by digital media. The digital natives are also known as netizens, Gen Y, or the Millennials. While most of the digital natives are tech-savvy by virtue of their being born around technology, a few of them do not have an inclination for technology and computers, or even an interest to learn more. Enthusiastic digital natives include (but are not limited to) online gamers and those first in line to buy the new Tab, iPad, iPhone or i[next product]. All of them find technology fun, and enjoy the latest developments. Their fingers are glued to their gadgets. In their Net Generation Survey of 7,705 college students in the U.S., Junco and Mastrodicasa (2007) found that

P/SP/i

- 97% own a computer;
- 94% own a cell phone;
- 76% use instant messaging and social networking sites;
- 15% of IM users are logged on 24 hours a day, seven days a week;
- 34% use websites as their primary source of news;
- 28% author a blog and 44% read blogs;
- 49% regularly download music and other media using peer-to-peer file sharing;
- 75% have a Facebook account; and

P/SP/i

- 60% own some type of portable music and/or video device such as an iPod.

While "digital natives speak and breathe the language of computers and deal with technology as naturally as those who grew up with it" (For a list of further differences between digital natives and digital immigrants, see Zur and Zur, 2012; http://www.zurinstitute.com/digital_divide.html). Generally speaking, the digital natives are less and less prepared to write in a professional manner. This sets them up for digital divide clashes at school where digital immigrant teachers set the tone. Digital immigrant teachers who are used to establishing class rules of sitting nicely, paying undivided attention to lecturing, and no texting in class may be concerned that the Internet dumbs down the students' minds due to the distractibility effect and the concurrent lack of focus and concentration on non-technical subjects" (Zur and Zur, 2012).

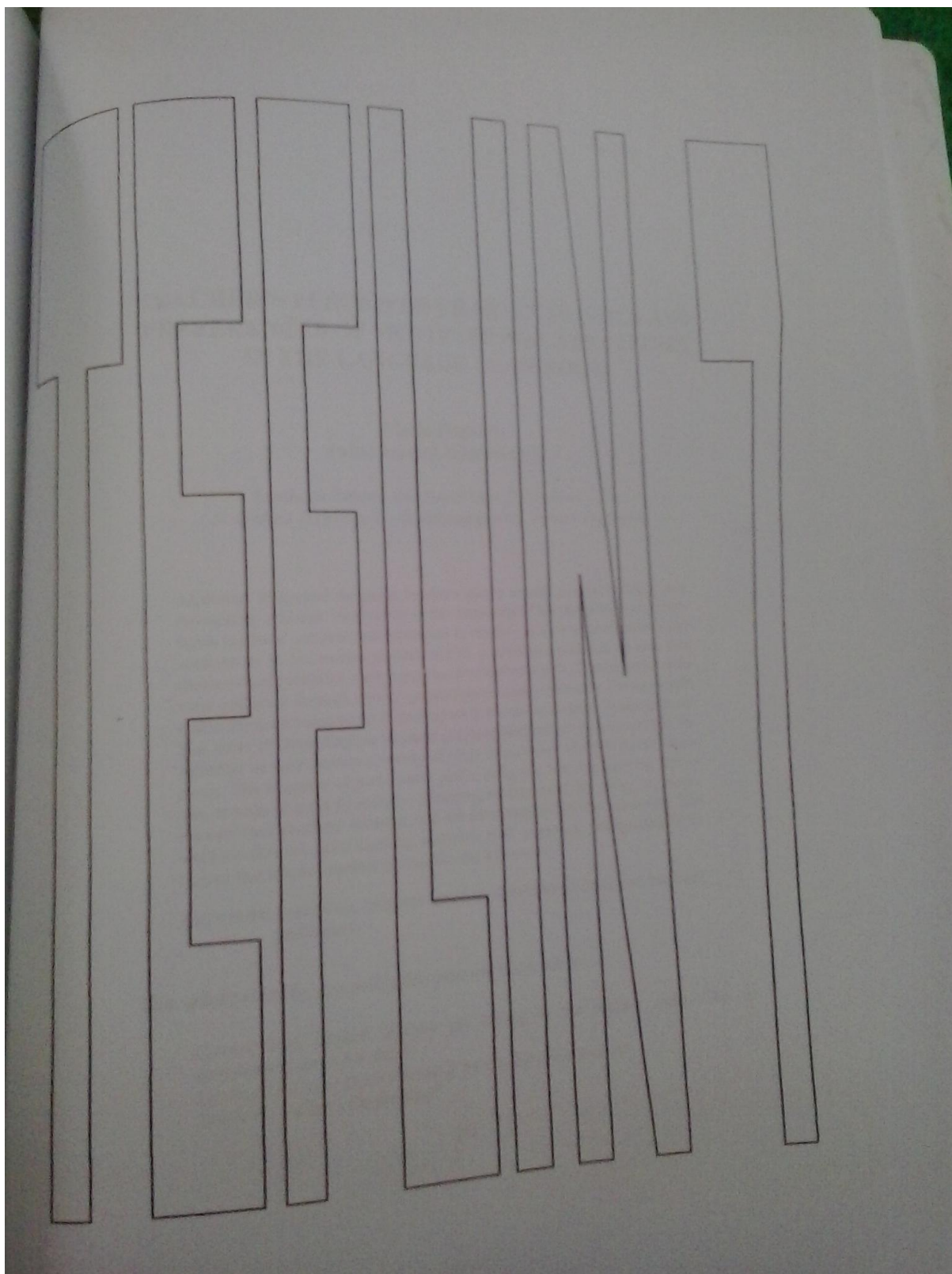
Q 197/H-1

To face the digital divide in class, the digital immigrant teachers have choices. A teacher has an authority and the power to set the tone in class. He or she can choose to cling to traditional practices and teach in ways he or she is comfortable with. Of course, students will seemingly conform to whatever tone or format the teacher has set—*Open and read page 5. Listen to my lecture. Copy what I have written on the board. Memorize that for the test, etc.* The teacher may never be aware of this digital divide and can only complain in the faculty room about the dumbing down of the contemporary generation of students. Another choice for teachers would be to reach out to these millennials and learn to use ways that could serve as the bridge to cross over the digital divide. I have chosen the latter and placed myself as a learner. While teaching a course in Pedagogy, I investigated the following:

1. Does the use of social media for class purposes help motivate students to find their learning processes more relevant?
2. Does the use of social media help students meet the required competence requirements?

METHOD

As a social media specifically designed for education, Edmodo is used as an out-of-class communication forum to post/submit assignments and re-



TEACHER'S PERCEIVED CHARACTERISTICS AND PREFERENCES OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Winda Hapsari

(windahapsari07@gmail.com)

*Lembaga Bahasa dan Pendidikan Profesional LIA
Jl. Galaxy Raya No. 1 – 6, Jakasampurna, Bekasi, Indonesia*

Abstract: Motivated language teachers play a crucial role in building and developing students' motivation in the classroom. This study aims to investigate teachers' motivational strategies in relation to their characteristics and preferences in Indonesian context of EFL instruction, which is an area that receives scant attention with regard to empirical research. The empirical data were collected through survey questionnaires and interviews. Twenty-eight active teachers volunteered to participate in the present study. Findings show that most of these English teachers perceive themselves as enthusiastic facilitators as they explore a variety of ways to motivate students in the classroom. The majority of participants prefer assigning various learning activities or tasks in order to energize a learning environment. By doing so, teachers can draw students' attention and get them engaged in the classroom. The teachers also integrate teaching materials with engaging pedagogical techniques that involve student interaction and movement.

Keywords: motivation, language learning, motivational strategies, teachers' preferences

This article starts by presenting this personal observation.

(Scene: Two English teachers are talking in the teacher room. One is complaining about her class)

Teacher 1: I'm so tired. It's really hard to handle this class.

Teacher 2: What's the problem?

Teacher1: They never pay attention to what I explain to them. They keep forgetting even though I have repeated my explanation again and again. They like to chat and are usually busy with their gadget. They do the exercises without enthusiasm. Some even complain when I give them homework. They don't seem to have motivation to learn in class...

This reflective account provides a personal sketch of what motivates our students to learn English. Many other teachers may experience the same situation. Fifteen years of my teaching experiences in working with different groups of students have witnessed the fact that second and foreign language students demonstrate low motivation to perform assigned learning tasks in the language classroom. Instead, they easily get distracted and are not really interested in the tasks, and they tend to chat, play with their gadget, and daydream. They do not engage in in-class activities. These behaviors show that the students are physically present in the class, but not cognitively. English teachers cannot blame these students for having low motivation or ignorance of investing time and energy in learning English since motivation itself is a multifaceted aspect of dynamic interaction between teachers and students.

It is widely accepted that motivation is the key to the success of second and foreign language learning (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Deniz, Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010). Without sufficient motivation, successful language learning cannot be achieved. Deniz (2010) argues that a certain degree of motivation may lead a person to believe that he or she can get over any difficulty and succeed in the language learning after encountering the challenges. For this reason, teachers play a crucial role in building and enhancing students' motivation to learn English. This suggests that the agency of teachers in the learning process needs to be taken into account.

It should be understood that there is no way we can get learners to be motivated without having motivated teachers. Motivated teachers will do anything within the remit of their power to create interesting and enjoyable learning environments, so that learners engage actively in in-class activities. This is where learning takes place. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) maintain that teachers who consider the long-term development of their students see the urgency of motivating them. These teachers' concerns intrigue them to enact instructional strategies that can engage students. A whole myriad of techniques, methods, as well as materials provide English teachers with possible ways to motivate students in the language classroom.

S/PT/H+

P/PT/I

P/PT/I

Research studies in motivational strategies have been undertaken to examine frequency and types of motivational strategies used (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010) correlation and validity of motivational strategies used (Guiloteaux, 2013), as well as contextual issues on the use of motivational strategies (Guiloteaux & Dornyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Other studies have been conducted to look at affective aspects of motivational strategies, but these studies focus on teacher perception towards students' abilities and academic goals (Hardre, Huang, Chen, Chiang, Jen, & Warden, 2006) and towards motivational strategies used (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). Additionally, there is a dearth of empirical evidence showing how teachers perceive themselves as motivated individuals as well as type(s) of motivational strategies preferred regarding the way to create an engaging learning environment. This awaits further investigation. To fill this need, the present study seeks to (1) examine how teachers perceive themselves regarding their efforts to motivate students in the language classroom; and (2) investigate teachers' preference of motivational strategies used.

To provide clear conceptual framework for this present study, the following discusses motivation and motivational strategies, motivated teachers and their perceptions and the relationship between motivated teachers and motivated learners. The first concepts to be discussed are motivation and motivational strategies. The construct, motivation, is not easily defined. Dornyei (2001) defines "[m]otivation [as] an abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and behave as they do" (p. 1). It also refers to the reason underlying behavior that is characterized by willingness and volition (Lai, 2011). Motivation also provides the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign language learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Deniz, Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010; Guiloteaux & Dornyei, 2008). Dornyei (2001) boldly contend that "99% of language learners who really want to learn a foreign language (i.e. who are really motivated) will be able to master a reasonable working knowledge of it as a minimum regardless of their language aptitude" (p. 2).

It is widely accepted that the responsibility for motivating learners and keeping them motivated during the tenure of their studies rests with the teacher (Dornyei, 2001). Teachers have the power to find ways to get learners engaged and motivated in the classroom. This notion is supported by the results of research suggesting that motivation can be manipulated through certain instructional (or motivational) strategies (Lai, 2011). In this respect, motivational

S/PP/H?

P/SP/H

S/PT/H

P/PP/H

P/SP/H

Q/PT/i

P/SP/H

S/PT/H

Q/PT/i

P/SP/H

P/PT/H

strategies are defined as methods and techniques to generate and maintain the learners' motivation (Dornyei, 2001; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010). Papi and Abdollahzadeh's study provides empirical evidence that language teachers can make a real difference in boosting their students' motivation by applying various motivational strategies.

S/P/M

Renandya (2013) proposes 5Ts of motivation comprising teacher and four types of motivational strategies as aspects to work on in order to give impact on learner's motivation in class. The four types of motivational strategies include:

P/Pt/i

1. Teaching methods

A teacher who uses a variety of teaching methods, customized to the individual needs of the learners will be more successful in engaging them towards achieving the L2 learning targets. This suggests that the more English teachers explore teaching methods and strategies, the more successful they will be in engaging the students in learning activities or tasks.

2. Tasks

Spaulding (in Wu, 2003) proposed a balance between challenging tasks and easy tasks which is one effective way to improve learners' self-confidence. This, later, boosts motivation in learning. The way it is theorized by Vygotsky that learners feel they are developing new competencies only when they can accomplish challenging tasks with some assistance from a more skilled person. Tasks that fall within students' comfort and stretch zones tend to be more motivating than those that are too demanding. Also, tasks that allow learners to experience more success rather than failure are a great boost to learner motivation.

P/SP/i

3. Texts

Both oral and written instructional texts or materials used as classroom materials should be interesting and relevant to the learners. These texts should build students' interests in learning English, and make use of these materials as a starting point for learning more materials. Also, the materials should create real-life situations where the students engage in their daily social encounters. It is important to bear in mind that the texts should also be pitched at or slightly above their current level of proficiency. In other words, materials should spark students' interests and fall within the remit

of students' language abilities. Thus, instructional texts should be engaging cognitively, affectively, and socially.

4. Tests

Tests that serve as a learning tool help learners to see their progress in a non-threatening manner. Such tests can drive learners to work harder to achieve their learning goals by focusing more on assessment for learning than assessment of learning. The former is more informative and learning-friendly than the latter. Learning assessments should bring fresh impetus to continued language learning in which students invest more time and energy in this learning. This notion implies that learning never reaches completion in that students learn a variety of how English is used in different contexts.

The second concept to be discussed in here is about motivated teachers and their perceptions. [As mentioned earlier, Renandya's (2013) proposal for five areas (STs) to work on to get students motivated listed teachers in the first place.] In order to help teachers develop motivational strategies, English teachers should have better understanding on how they perceive themselves in terms of motivating the learners. It is impossible to expect learners to get motivated if the teacher himself or herself is not motivating. [Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, and Ratcheva's (2013) findings provide compelling evidence that teachers' motivational behavior cause enhanced motivation in second language learners.]

Some characteristics of motivated teachers are enthusiastic, resourceful, creative, and strict. [Wilson (2012) outlines some key motivational factors, and the first one is teacher enthusiasm.] The word, "enthusiasm," itself refers to a strong excitement of feeling. [Dornyci (2001) defines enthusiastic teachers as the ones who love their subject matter and who show their dedication and their passion that there is nothing else on earth they would rather be doing.] They are very passionate about their profession. They are always eager about their teaching as well as their learners in spite of the challenges to which they are facing up.

The second characteristic of a motivated teacher is resourceful. Being resourceful refers to the state of being available for anything needed, being able to meet any situations. A resourceful teacher is always available for anything that learners need. He or she provides various ways and means to cater diverse needs of learners with different learning styles and intellectual capabilities. The third characteristic is creative. Being creative pertains to the ability to change

P/SP/i

P/PT/i

P/PT/i

P/PT/i

something usual into unusual or innovative. A creative teacher is able to manipulate common or usual teaching materials, techniques, or methods into innovative ones which are interesting for learners. Creative teachers are usually surprising for their learners so that learners never get bored.

Being strict is also a part of a motivated teacher. The term, "strict," seems to give negative perceptions of motivation. We need to understand that motivation is not always intrigued by things that make learners comfortable all the time. Being strict is associated with the term 'close,' 'tight,' 'controlled condition'. Strict teachers will set up clear classroom rules and structure. They will make sure their learners stay intact with the lessons by giving regular tests, review, and/or (home) assignments. Additionally, teachers establish recognition and reward system in order to maintain discipline in their classes (Rahimi and Hossaini, 2012). By doing those things, teachers try to develop conducive atmosphere for learning and nurture good habit. Therefore, teachers expect better learning outcomes.

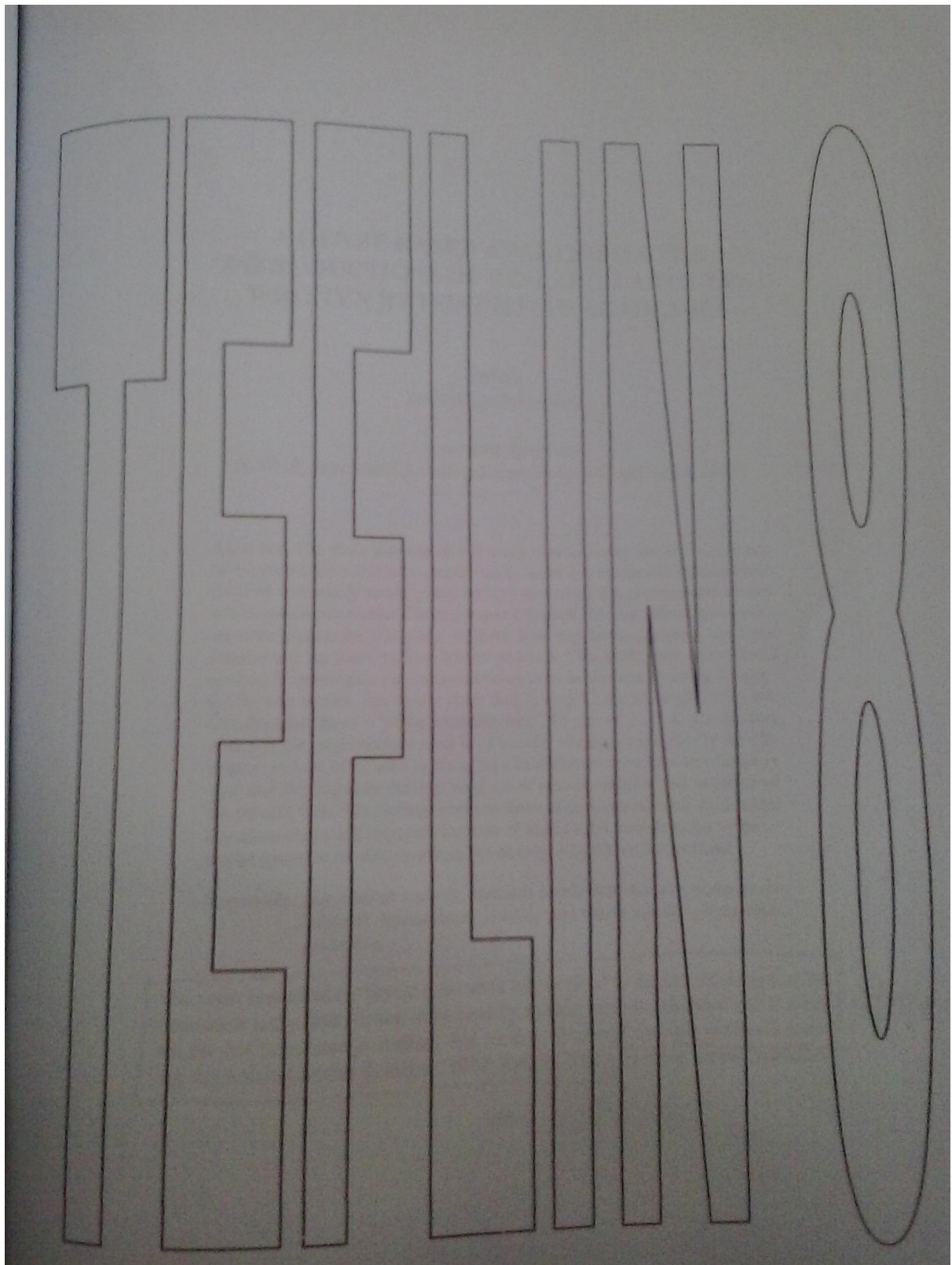
In addition to concepts on motivation and motivational strategies, and motivated teachers and their perceptions, the conceptual framework for the study includes the discussion on the relationship between motivated teachers and motivated learners. It should be clear that the goal of using various motivational strategies in classrooms is to get learners motivated. [Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) found a strong positive correlation between teachers' motivational teaching practices and their learners' learning motivation in the actual classroom. Renandya (2013) characterizes motivated learners as more enthusiastic, goal-oriented, committed, persistent, and confident in their learning. They are willing to work hard to achieve their goal and do not easily give up until they achieve that goal.]

There is no denying that the effectiveness of motivational strategies implemented in the classroom is weighed not only from teacher's perspectives but also from those of learners. [Dornyei (2001) argues that sometimes the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality of our teaching. The better the quality of teaching in the eyes of learners is, the more likely the learners will be motivated in language classroom. In order to find out how learners see their teacher's teaching, they can be asked to fill out questionnaire or make self report, or be interviewed. Through the use of those instruments, the extent to which the way teachers enact instruction is associated with the learners' level of motivation can be measured or evaluated.]

P/SP/i

P/SP/i

P/PT/i



A GENRE-BASED ANALYSIS ON THE INTRODUCTIONS OF RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY INDONESIAN ACADEMICS

Safnil

(safnil@yahoo.com)

Universitas Bengkulu

Jl. W. R. Supratman Kandang Limun Bengkulu, Indonesia 38371

Abstract: The main purpose of this study was to search for the occurrence of communicative and subcommunicative units and to identify the linguistic features commonly used by the authors to realize the communicative and subcommunicative units. Three groups of English RAs by Indonesian speakers were chosen for this study: 10 RAs from engineering science, ten from science and ten from medical science journals. This study used genre-based method to investigate the communicative units in the text by using Swales' CARS as a model. The results show that 1) only 11 out of 30 (36.66%) RA introductions have a 'niche establishment', 2) out of 11 RA introduction with a niche establishment none is of counter claiming type, and 3) the discourse markers often used in the niche establishment are of the contradictory type and the linguistic features used are of lexical negation and negation of the phrasal verb. The findings confirm those of previous relevant studies that discourse styles and linguistic features of English RA introductions by Indonesian speakers are different from the ones by English native speakers.

Keywords: genre-based analysis, research article introduction, niche establishment, international journal, non-native speaker, Indonesian academics

The most important section in a research article (RA) is the introduction section because it is the first section to be read by readers after the abstract and if readers are not impressed in reading this section, they will unlikely continue reading the article (Swales & Najjar, 1987; Safnil, 2001). In other words, introduc-

S/PT/M-1

tion section of a RA functions to motivate readers in order to read the whole part of the article and therefore, this section must be written as interestingly and convincingly as possible. According to Belcher (2009, p. 209), the main purpose of introduction section of a RA is to 'provide enough information for the readers to be able to understand your argument and its stakes'. A similar comment has also been made by Swales and Peak (1994) in which they suggest that the main purpose of introduction section of a RA are two folds: these are to give a logical reason for the article and to provoke readers to read it. The ways writers rhetorically present the argument in their RA introduction will determine whether or not readers are impressed and convinced and whether or not they will continue reading the article.

Q/PT/i

P/PP/i

The introduction section of a RA carries some of the persuasive value of the entire article; in this section the authors appeal to readers in order to accept that the research project which has been conducted and reported in the RA is important and useful (Hunston, 1994). According to Hunston, RA writers have to address two very important reasons to conduct the research project in their RA introduction in order to be convincing and persuasive; first, there is a knowledge gap left from previous relevant studies, and second, the knowledge gap occurs in an important topic. These two claims are equally important but expressed through different ways. However, different authors may address these two rhetorical work differently and non-native speakers may use different discourse style or features from native speakers in their RA introduction.

P/PT/H-1

Writing research article introductions in a particular language is not easy even for the native speakers of the language (Adnan, 2005). Similarly, Swales (1990) argues that for most writers writing an introduction is more difficult and causes problems compared to writing the other sections of the article. This is because, according to Swales, in the introduction section writers have to provide the right amount and the right kind of information necessary for a particular reader or group of readers to understand the research topic and research project. In addition, the research article introduction, as the introduction of other types of academic discourse should be convincingly argumentative and persuasive and interestingly informative.

P/PT/H-1

P/PT/i

The ways writers organize their ideas in RA introductions have become a focus interest of scientific discourse studies recently including in Indonesia. In Indonesia, studies on this topic have been conducted by several investigators, such as by Safnil (2001), Mirahayuni (2002) and Adnan (2009). Safnil (2001) investigated the rhetorical structure of RA introductions written in Indonesian

S/PP/i

by Indonesian writers in social sciences and humanities and found that the discourse style of the RA introductions in the corpus of his study was different from the one in English as in the CARS model suggested by Swales (1990). According to Saiful, the differences are among other things, that 1) the introduction sections of RAs in Indonesian have more moves and steps than the one in English; 2) move 1 (establishing a territory) in the Indonesian RA introduction is mainly dealt with by referring to the government policy to convince readers that the topic of the research project is important; 3) Move 2 (establishing a niche), probably the most important move in the RA introduction because this is where the authors justify the research project reported in the RA, is addressed by simply saying that the topic or the problem is necessary or interesting to investigate. In other words, the Indonesian RA writers do not justify their research projects reported in their RA introductions in scientific or logically convincing ways as the ones in English RA introduction.

P/99/i

A similar study was conducted by Adnan (2009) when he analysed the discourse style of RA introductions in the discipline of education written by Indonesian speakers by using Swales' CARS as a model. He found that out of twenty-one RA introductions in the corpus of his study, none of which fit the discourse style of English RA introduction as suggested by Swales (1990). The main difference, according to Adnan is on the occurrence of Move 1 (establishing a territory) in which the majority of Indonesian RA writers address the importance of their research topic by referring to practical problems experienced by common people or the government rather than by specific relevant discourse community. In addition, none of the Indonesian RA authors, as Adnan claims further, justifies their research projects reported in the RAs by pointing at the gap or 'niche' in the results or findings of previous relevant studies as in Swales' model of Move 2 (establishing a niche). Adnan proposes a modified model of ideal problem solution (IPS) to capture important discourse style of the Indonesian RA introduction sections especially in the discipline of education.

P/9/i

P/97/i

P/11/i

One of the earliest discourse analysis studies on RA introductions in English written by Indonesian speakers was conducted by Mirahayuni (2002). Mirahayuni analysed the discourse style of three groups of RA introductions (20 English RAs by English speakers, 19 Indonesian RAs by Indonesian speakers, and 19 English RAs by Indonesian speakers) in the field of language teaching. Using CARS of Swales (1990) as a model in the analysis, Mirahayuni found differences particularly between English RA introductions by English

P/11/i

native speakers (ENSs) and the ones by Indonesian speakers (NNSs) in terms of the way they introduced and justified their research projects reported in the articles. The ENSs referred to 'the current state of knowledge and findings of previous relevant research' (p. 29) while the NNSs referred to a more practical problems occurring in the society. In other words, according to Mirahayuni, the NNSs intended their research projects to deal with local problems and to be read by smaller scope of readership. Another difference between the two groups of RAs is the occurrence of 'benefits of the study' in the NNS's RA introductions which is not found in the ENS's RAs or in Swales' CARS model.

P/P/I

Another discourse study on English RAs written by Indonesian was conducted by Adnan (2009). Adnan from the corpus of his study (taken from three selected humanity discipline journals) found that the Indonesian authors did not follow the structure of English RAs written by English native speakers, particularly referring to the moves and steps in CARS model of Swales (1990). Adnan suggested that studies on RAs written in English by Indonesian speakers are necessary to confirm his findings especially RAs from other disciplines than humanity, such as from social, natural, medical and hard sciences.

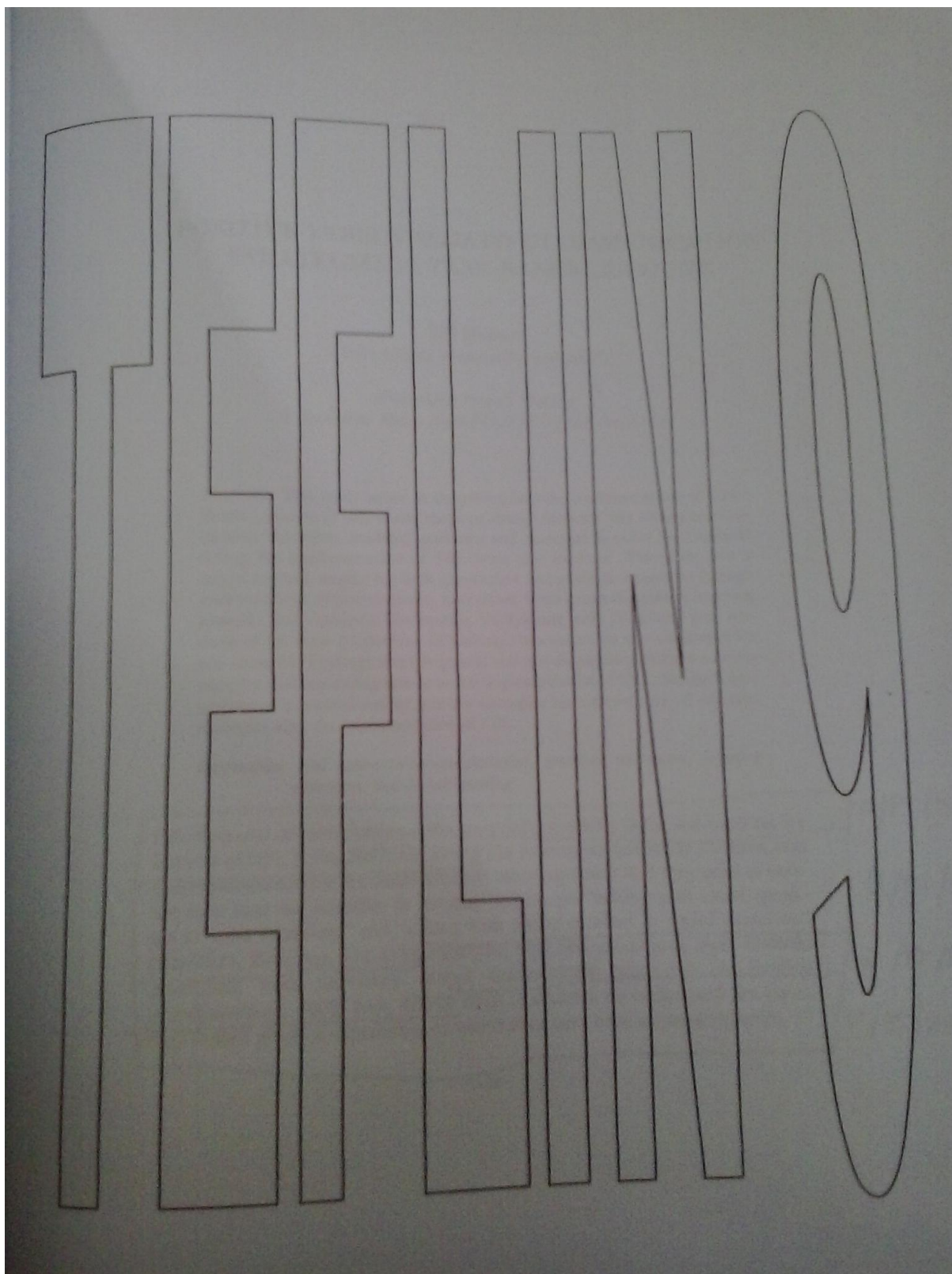
P/S/I

In Indonesia there are nine international journals published in English and indexed by Scopus such as, the ITB Journal of Science, the ITB Journal of Engineering Science, the Indonesian Quarterly, the Indonesian Journal of Geography, the Acta Medical Indonesia and so on (Kopertis 12, 2011). The articles included in these journals are written in English by mostly Indonesian speakers or nonnative speakers of English. However, since the journals are international journals the articles published in the journals should have been written as they are expected by English native speakers in terms of their rhetorical structure and linguistic features. This is the main motivation for this study; that is to see how the RAs published in international journals of Indonesia especially of their introduction sections are schematically structured and linguistically characterized.

P/S/I

P/S/I

In particular, this study is aimed at investigating the rhetorical style and linguistic features of English RA introductions written by Indonesian academics published in Indonesian international journals in engineering, natural and medical sciences. The main questions addressed in this study are the followings:



POSITIVE VERSUS NEGATIVE COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN TASK-BASED LEARNING

Siti Rohani

(siti_rohani_malang@yahoo.co.id)

Politeknik Negeri Malang

Jl. Soekarno Hatta No 9 PO BOX 04 Malang 65141

Abstract: This study aimed at describing how the implementation of Task-Based Learning (TBL) would shape or change students' use of oral communication strategies. Students' problems and strategies to solve the problems during the implementation of TBL were also explored. The study was a mixed method, employing both quantitative and qualitative analysis through multi-methods of questionnaire, interviews, focus group discussion, learning journals, and classroom observation. Participants were 26 second year students of the State Polytechnic of Malang. Data collection was conducted for one semester. Findings show linguistic and non-linguistic problems encountered by students during one-semester implementation of TBL. Students also performed increased use of positive strategies but reduced use of negative strategies after the implementation of TBL.

Keywords: oral communication strategies, positive strategies, negative strategies, task-based learning

Effective oral communication skills, especially speaking skills, are essential for learners of EFL (Goh, 2007; Ur, 1996). For Indonesian university students, oral communication skills are considered the most important skill they need to master; their first two priorities in learning English are "talking with native speakers in work situations" and "talking with native speakers in social situations" (Bradford, 2007, pp. 311-312). However, with few exceptions, most students graduating from university cannot communicate adequately in English (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). Even if students do understand the input, they cannot produce expressions to which they have been exposed (Morries, 29

C/PT/H-1

Q/PT/H-1

S/PT/H-1

P/PT/H-1

September 2001). Some causes for this have been identified, including large class size, teachers' low English proficiency, teachers' lack of familiarity with the implementation of new curriculum, and inappropriate methods of teaching (Dardjowidjojo, 7-10 October 1996, 2000).

P/PP/N-1

As the latest realization of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Learning (TBL) is regarded as a favourite method by English teachers in Asia (Nunan, 2003) and is also popular in Indonesia. The task is basically defined as a goal-oriented classroom activity (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2006; Oxford, 2006; Prabhu, 1987; Willis, 1998) which requires learners' use of target language, focusing on the conveying of meaning rather than on the practice of form (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2006; Skehan, 1998). There are two main reasons to choose TBL as an English teaching and learning approach, namely the desire for a meaning-focused approach that reflects real life language use (Leaver & Willis, 2004) and the task based interactions stimulating natural acquisition processes (Prabhu, 1987). A number of studies reveal the effectiveness of TBL in enhancing students' language proficiency, especially in oral communication skills (Ahmed, 1996; Lochana & Deb, 2006; Lovick & Cobb, 2007; Sae-Ong, 2010) despite some challenges to the implementation of TBL in Asia Pacific (eg., Adams & Newton, 2009; Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007) and in Indonesia (eg., Jazadi, 2000; Nur, 2004).

P/PT/H-1

S/PT/N-1

S/PT/N-

P/PT/H-1

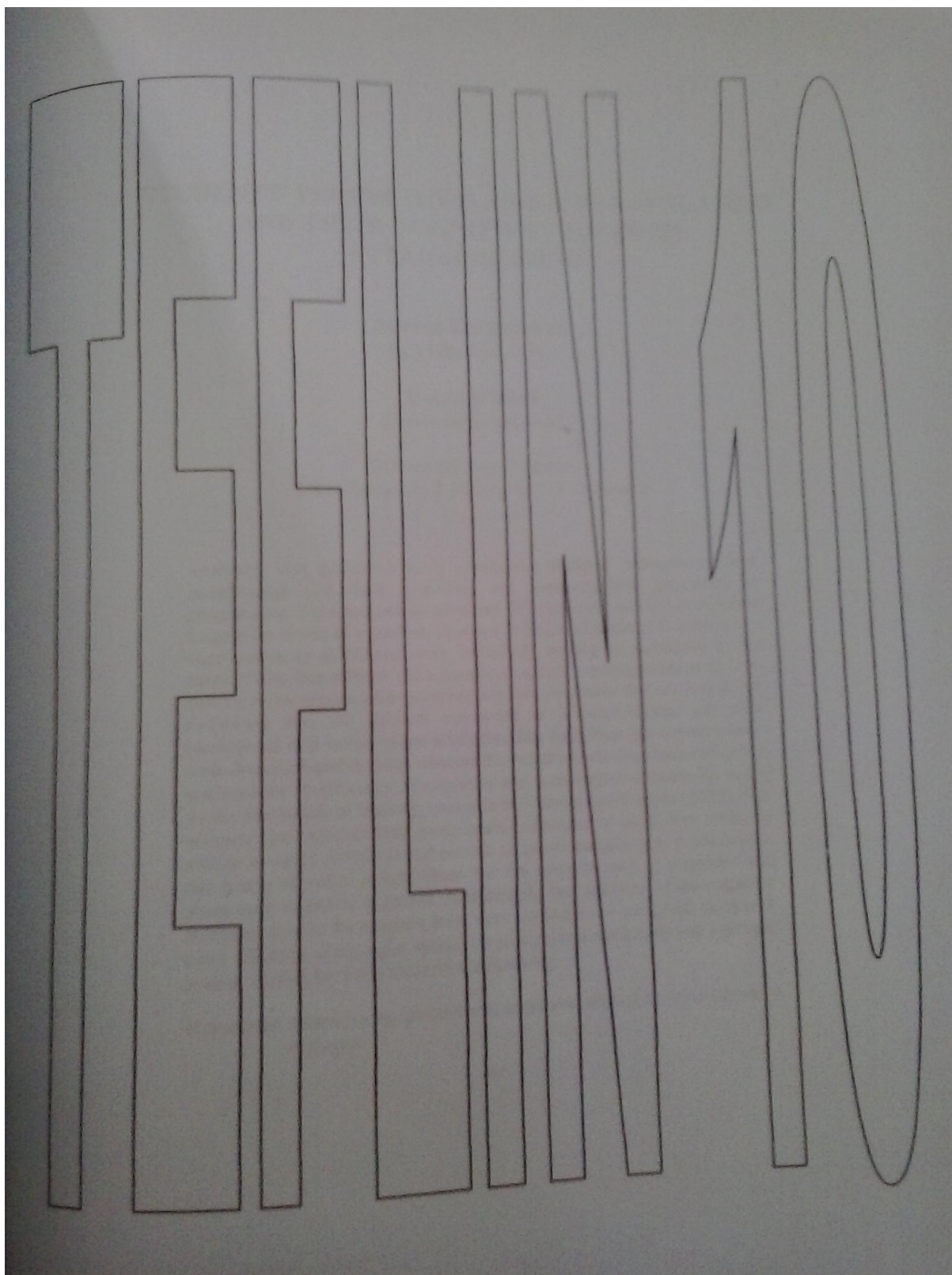
P/SP/N-1

S/PT/N-1

Oral communication skills and communication strategies in EFL learning are interconnected. Communication strategies are the means to close the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence, the gap between what learners are capable of and what learners intend to express (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980). Employment of communication strategies is considered one of the strategies in learning and developing oral communication skills.

P/PT/N-1

Students' individual differences have been identified as influencing use and choice of communication strategies. Students of different levels of oral communication skills employ different communication strategies (eg., Griffiths, 2003; Macaro, 2006). Task types have also been identified as determining employment of communication strategies (eg., Ng, 1995; Oxford, Yunkyoung Cho, Santoi Leung, & Hae-Jin Kim, 2004). Implementation of TBL to promote students' oral communication skills may shape the pattern of students' use of oral communication strategies without discounting the possibility of this being influenced by other factors of individual difference.



STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT PARAPHRASING AND THEIR COGNITIVE PROCESSES IN PARAPHRASING

Beleven Khristmawan
(b_11@yahoo.co.id)

Utami Widiati
(uwidiati@yahoo.com)

*Universitas Negeri Malang
Jalan Semarang 5 Malang 65145, Indonesia*

Abstract: This qualitative study investigates students' perceptions about paraphrasing and their cognitive and meta-cognitive processes in paraphrasing. Four Indonesian advanced EFL students enrolled in Applied Linguistics course of a graduate program in English Language Teaching of a state university in Malang were voluntarily willing to participate in the study. These four subjects did a paraphrasing task requiring them to do concurrent verbal reports while paraphrasing three sentences and one paragraph. Following this, the subjects responded to a questionnaire and then participated in a retrospective interview. The data from the questionnaires were described qualitatively, whereas the verbal reports were transcribed and analyzed for identification of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies based on the framework of learning strategies by Chamot and Kupper (1989). The subjects' perceptions about paraphrasing appeared to be in line with the widely accepted definition and criteria of proper paraphrases. Additionally, the results of verbal reports show that the subjects used 21 cognitive and seven meta-cognitive strategies, reflecting the fact that most of the cognitive strategies used in the sentence level were applied in the paragraph level with some additions of strategies specific to paragraph development and synthesis such as finding the main idea and summarizing.

Keywords: paraphrasing, perceptions, cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies

The skills of text borrowing and integrating others' written ideas into one's own academic writing are important skills in the academic world, especially for those taking secondary or higher education. Direct quoting, summarizing, and paraphrasing are the text borrowing skills commonly applied in academic writing. Compared to paraphrasing, quoting directly from the original source is much more practical, simpler, and less complicated. There is certainly nothing wrong with incorporating quotations; however, using too many quotations as noted by Davis and Beaumont (2007) does not reflect fluent writing. Academic writing, therefore, encourages the utilization of paraphrasing and summarizing or synthesizing skills instead.

P / PT / i

Paraphrasing is defined as restating a sentence in such a way that both sentences would generally be recognized as lexically and syntactically different while remaining semantically equal (Amoroso, 2007; Davis & Beaumont, 2007; McCarthy, Guess, & McNamara, 2009). This definition implies at least two echoes: reading comprehension and writing skill. Therefore, as indicated by McCarthy, Guess, and McNamara (2009), paraphrasing has also been used to aid comprehension, stimulate prior knowledge, and assist writing skill development.

C / PT / PT-1

P / PT / i

Literature in cognitive psychology shows that paraphrasing is cognitively demanding. As the material to be paraphrased becomes more complex, students tend to employ simpler processing, causing the writing to look like a patchwork (Marsh, Landau, & Hick in Walker, 2008). Walker further notes that simply thinking about paraphrasing requires considerable cognitive energy, and once the physical process of writing begins, people have limited resources left to automatically engage in thoughtful, systematic processing to determine if they paraphrase properly. These challenging traits of paraphrasing lead to some difficulties. A study by Iwasaki (1999) in the Japanese context indicated four main areas of difficulties: different behaviors of parts of speech, subject restriction, contextual paraphrasing, and "blank" locating. In the Indonesian context, there is little evidence and information derived from comprehensive research devoted to investigating paraphrasing-related issues. Despite an extensive number of respondents participating, Kusumasondjaja's survey (2010) did not tap on students' paraphrasing ability. It seems that paraphrasing is not defined, or that it is vaguely defined, or simply perceived as modifying the original source without specifying the degree of the modification itself. Possibly it was assumed that the researcher and the respondents who were Indonesian graduate students had the same perceptions about paraphrasing. It

P / PT / PT-1

P / SP / i

P / SP / i

seems important, therefore, to carry out a study to understand more clearly how Indonesian students perceive their knowledge of paraphrasing, a cognitively demanding skill to acquire.

An investigation on the paraphrasing strategies has been conducted by McInnis (2009), who compared the strategies of paraphrasing, perception, quality, and appropriateness of the paraphrases produced by three English-Canadian undergraduate students (L1) and three EFL undergraduate students who were not native speakers of English (L2). This present study differs from the one conducted by McInnis in several respects. First, in terms of the subjects, this present study includes Indonesian graduate students who might have different characteristics from the undergraduate students involved by McInnis. The second is the instrument of paraphrasing task. In McInnis's study, the subjects were required to paraphrase four excerpts of the same level. In this study, the subjects were asked to do two tasks: paraphrasing English texts at the sentence level and at the paragraph level. In other words, this study tries to explore the challenges posed by paraphrasing in terms of the cognitive and meta-cognitive processes that may stem from the perceived understandings of paraphrasing.

P/PP/i

METHOD

Employing a descriptive qualitative design, this study involved four subjects out of 16 students taking the Applied Linguistics course. These four subjects, assigned into an upper group (Subject 1 and Subject 2) and lower group (Subject 3 and Subject 4) based on the average of composite scores of their written essays submitted for midterm and final assignments, were voluntarily willing to participate in this study. In this class, the students were required to write a series of written assignments with certain numbers of words limited to 200 and 500 words.

The instruments included a questionnaire and a stimulated paraphrasing task. The questionnaire was projected to obtain information concerning four aspects: the students' perceptions about the definition of paraphrasing, paraphrasing strategies, usefulness of paraphrasing, and difficulties encountered when paraphrasing. The subjects' responses to the questionnaire were described qualitatively to explain the perceived understandings, strategies, usefulness, and challenges of paraphrasing.

The other instrument was a paraphrasing task which served as an activity to stimulate the verbal protocols which were simultaneously documented,



KEMENTERIAN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN
UNIVERSITAS BENGKULU
FAKULTAS KEGURUAN DAN ILMU PENDIDIKAN
JURUSAN PENDIDIKAN BAHASA DAN SENI
PROGRAM STUDI PENDIDIKAN BAHASA INGGRIS

Jln. WR. Supratman, Kandang Liman Bengkulu 38371 A
Telp./Faksimile (0736) 21186
Laman: www.fkip.unib.ac.id email: dekanat.fkip@unib.ac.id

SURAT KETERANGAN

Yang bertanda tangan dibawah ini:

Nama : DEAS SUHATTA NIJAYA

NPM : A1B010038

Prodi : Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Menyatakan dengan sesungguhnya bahwa skripsi dengan judul :

Citation Style of Indonesian and International writers found in Journal
Articles of TEFLIN and Asian EFL Introductions : A Comparative Study

adalah benar karya saya sendiri, bebas dari plagiat atau penyontekan. Apabila di kemudian hari ternyata terdapat permasalahan berkaitan dengan penyusunan skripsi ini, maka semua akibat dari hal itu merupakan tanggung jawab saya sendiri.

Ketua Prodi,

Drs. Syafrizal, M.A.
NIP 19570603 198803 1 006

Bengkulu, 17 Juni 2014
mat saya,



DEAS SUHATTA NIJAYA